federal register

WEDNESDAY, JULY 7, 1976

PART II:

DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

National Institutes of Health

RECOMBINANT DNA RESEARCH

Guidelines

DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

National Institutes of Health

RECOMBINANT DNA RESEARCH

Guidelines

On Wednesday, June 23, 1976, the Director, National Institutes of Health, with the concurrence of the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, and the Assistant Secretary for Health, issued guidelines that will govern the conduct of NIH supported research on recombinant DNA molecules. The NIH is also undertaking an environmental impact assessment of these guidelines for recombinant DNA research in accordance with the National Environmental Policy Act of 1969.

The NIH Guidelines establish carefully controlled conditions for the conduct of experiments involving the production of such molecules and their insertion into organisms such as bacteria. These Guidelines replace the recommendations contained in the 1975 *Summary Statement of the Asilomar Conference on Recombinant DNA Molecules*. The latter would have permited research under less strict conditions than the NIH Guidelines.

The chronology leading to the present Guidelines is described in detail in the NIH Director's decision document that follows. In summary, scientists engaged in this research called, in 1974, for a moratorium on certain kinds of experiments until an international meeting could be convened to consider the potential hazards of recombinant DNA molecules. They also called upon the NIH to establish a committee to provide advice on recombinant DNA technology.

The international meeting was held at the Asilomar Conference Center, Pacific Grove, California, in February 1975. The consensus of this meeting was that certain experiments should not be done at the present time, but that most of the work on construction of recombinant DNA molecules should proceed with appropriate physical and biological barriers. The Asilomar Conference report also made interim assignments of the potential risks associated with different types of experiments. The NIH then assumed responsibility for translating the broadly based Asilomar recommendations into detailed guidelines for research.

The decision by the NIH Director on these Guidelines was reached after extensive scientific and public airing of the issues during the sixteen months which have elapsed since the Asilomar Conference. The issues were discussed at public meetings of the Recombinant DNA Molecule Program Advisory Committee (Recombinant Advisory Committee) and the Advisory Committee to the NIH Director. The Recombinant Advisory Committee extensively debated three different versions of the Guidelines during this period.

The Advisory Committee to the NIH Director, augmented with consultants representing law, ethics, consumer affairs and the environment, was asked to advise as to whether the proposed Guidelines balanced responsibilty to protect the public with the potential benefits through the pursuit of new knowledge. The many different points of view expressed at this meeting were taken into consideration in the decision.

The NIH recognizes a special obligation to disseminate information on these guidelines as widely as possible. Accordingly, the Guidelines will be sent to all of the approximately 25,000 NIH grantees and contractors. Major professional societies which represent scientists working in this area will also be asked to endorse the Guidelines. The Guidelines will be sent to medical and scientific journals and editors of these journals will be asked to request that investigators include a description of the physical and biological containment procedures used in any recombinant research they report on. International health and scientific organizations will also receive copies of the guidelines for their review.

Filing of an environmental impact statement will provide opportunity for the scientific community, Federal, State and local agencies and the general public to address the potential benefits and hazards of this research area. In order for there to be further opportunity for public comment and consideration, these guidelines are being offered for general comment in the FEDERAL REGISTER. It must be clearly understood by the reader that the material that follows is *not* proposed rulemaking in the technical sense, but is a document on which early public comment and participation is invited.

Please address any comments on these draft policies and procedures to the Director, National Institutes of Health, 9000 Rockville Pike, Bethesda, Maryland 20014. All comments should be received by November 1, 1976.

Additional copies of this notice are available from the Acting Director, Office of Recombinant DNA Activities, National Institute of General Medical Sciences, National Institutes of Health, 9000 Rockville Pike, Bethesda, Maryland 20014.

DONALD S. FREDRICKSON,
Director,
NIH National Institutes of Health.

JUNE 25, 1976.

DECISION OF THE DIRECTOR, NATIONAL INSTITUTES OF HEALTH TO RELEASE GUIDELINES FOR RESEARCH ON RECOMBINANT DNA MOLECULES

JUNE 23, 1976.

INTRODUCTION

Today, with the concurrence of the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare and the Assistant Secretary for Health, I am releasing guidelines that will govern the conduct of NIH-supported research on recombinant DNA molecules (molecules resulting from the recombination in cell-free systems of segments of deoxyribonucleic acid, the material that determines the hereditary characteristics of all known cells). These guidelines establish carefully controlled conditions for the conduct of experiments involving the insertion of such recombinant genes into organisms, such as bacteria. The chronology leading to the present glidelines and the decision to release them are outlined in this introduction.

In addition to developing these guidelines, NIH has undertaken an environmental impact assessment of these guidelines for recombinant DNA research in accordance with the National Environmental Policy Act of 1969 (NEPA). The guidelines are being released prior to completion of this assessment. They will replace the current Asilomar guidelines, discussed below, which in many instances allow research to proceed under less strict conditions. Because the NIH guidelines will afford a greater degree of scrutiny and protection, they are being released today, and will be effective while the environmental impact assessment is under way.

Recombinant DNA research brings to the fore certain problems in assessing the potential impact of basic science on society as a whole, including the manner of providing public participation in those asessments. The field of research involved is a rapidly moving one, at the leading edge of biological science. The experiments are extremely technical and complex. Molecular biologists active in this research have means of keeping informed, but even they may fail to keep abreast of the newest developments. It is not surprising that scientists in other fields and the general public have difficulty in understanding advances in recombinant DNA research. Yet public awareness and understanding of this line of investigation is vital.

It was the scientists engaged in recombinant DNA research who called for a moratorium on certain kinds of experiments in order to assess the risks and devise appropriate guidelines. The capability to perform DNA recombinations, and the potential hazards, had become apparent at the Gordon Research Conference on Nucleic Acids in July 1973. Those in attendance voted to send an open letter to Dr. Philip Handler, President of the National Academy of Sciences, and to Dr. John R. Hogness, President of the Institute of Medicine, NAS. The letter, appearing in *Science 181*, 1114, (1973), suggested "that the Academies

[*sic*] establish a study committee to consider this problem and to recommend specific actions or guidelines, should that seem appropriate."

In response, NAS formed a committee, and its members published another letter in *Science 185*, 303, (1974). Entitled "Potential Biohazards of Recombinant DNA Molecules," the letter proposed:

> First, and most important, that until the potential hazards of such recombinant DNA molecules have been better evaluated or until adequate methods are developed for preventing their spread, scientists throughout the world join with the members of this committee in voluntarily deferring * * * [certain] experiments * * *.
>
> Second, plans to link fragments of animal DNAs to bacterial plasmid DNA or bacteriophage DNA should be carefully weighted * * *.
>
> Third, the Director of the National Institutes of Health is requested to give immediate consideration to establishing an advisory committee charged with (i) overseeing an experimental program to evaluate the potential biological and ecological hazards of the above types of recombinant DNA molecules; (ii) developing procedures which will minimize the spread of such molecules within human and other populations; and (iii) devising guidelines to be followed by investigators working with potentially hazardous recombinant DNA molecules.
>
> Fourth, an international meeting of involved scientists from all over the world should be convened early in the coming year to review scientific progress in this area and to further discuss appropriate ways to deal with the potential biohazards of recombinant DNA molecules.

On October 7, 1974, the NIH Recombinant DNA Molecule Program Advisory Committee (hereafter "Recombinant Advisory Committee") was established to advise the Secretary, HEW, the Assistant Secretary for Health, and the Director, NIH, "concerning a program for developing procedures which will minimize the spread of such molecules within human and other populations, and for devising guidelines to be followed by investigators working with potentially hazardous recombinants."

The international meeting proposed in the *Science* article (*185*, 303, 1974) was held in February 1975 at the Asilomar Conference Center, Pacific Grove, California. It was sponsored by the National Academy of Sciences and supported by the National Institutes of Health and the National Science Foundation. One hundred and fifty people attended, including 52 foreign scientists from 15 countries, 16 representatives of the press, and 4 attorneys.

The conference reviewed progress in research on recombinant DNA molecules and discussed ways to deal with the potential biohazards of the work. Participants felt that experiments on construction of recombinant DNA molecules should proceed, provided that appropriate biological and physical containment is utilized. The conference made recommendations for matching levels of containment with levels of possible hazard for various types of experiments. Certain experiments were judged to pose such serious potential dangers that the conference recommended against their being conducted at the present time.

A report on the conference was submitted to the Assembly of Life Sciences, National Research Council, NAS, and approved by its Executive Committee on May 20, 1975. A summary statement of the report was published in *Science 188*, 991 (1975), *Nature 225*, 442, (1975), and the *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 72*, 1981, (1975). The report noted that "in many countries steps are already being taken by national bodies to formulate codes of practice for the conduct of experiments with known or potential biohazard. Until these are established, we urge individual scientists to use the proposals in this document as a guide."

The NIH Recombinant Advisory Committee held its first meeting in San Francisco immediately after the Asilomar conference. It proposed that NIH use the recommendations of the Asilomar conference as guidelines for research until the committee had an opportunity to elaborate more specific guidelines, and that NIH establish a newsletter for informal distribution of information. NIH accepted these recommendations.

At the second meeting, held on May 12–13, 1975, in Bethesda, Maryland, the committee received a report on biohazard-containment facilities in the United States and reviewed a proposed NIH contract program for the construction and testing of microorganisms that would have very limited ability to survive in natural environments and would thereby limit the potential hazards. A subcommittee chaired by Dr. David Hogness was appointed to draft guidelines for research involving recombinant DNA molecules, to be discussed at the next meeting.

The NIH committee, beginning with the draft guidelines prepared by the Hogness subcommittee, prepared proposed guidelines for research with recombinant DNA molecules at its third meeting, held on July 18–19, 1975, in Woods Hole, Massachusetts.

Following this meeting, many letters were received which were critical of the guidelines. The majority of critics felt that they were too lax, others that they were too strict. All letters were reviewed by the committee, and a new subcommittee, chaired by Dr. Elizabeth Kutter, was appointed to revise the guidelines.

A fourth committee meeting was held on December 4–5, 1975, in La Jolla, California. For this meeting a "variorum edition" had been prepared, comparing line-for-line the Hogness, Woods Hole, and Kutter guidelines. The committee reviewed these, voting item-by-item for their preference among the three variations and, in many cases, adding new material. The result was the "Proposed Guidelines for Research Involving Recombinant DNA Molecules, "which were referred to the Director, NIH, for a final decision in December 1975.

As Director of the National Institutes of Health, I called a special meeting of the Advisory Committee to the Director to review these proposed guidelines. The meeting was held at NIH, Bethesda, on February 9–10, 1976. The Advisory Committee is charged to advise the Director, NIH, on matters relating to the broad setting—scientific, technological, and socioeconomic—in which the continuing development of the biomedical sciences, education for the health professions, and biomedical communications must take place, and to advise on their implications for NIH policy, program development, resource allocation, and administration. The members of the committee are knowledgeable in the fields of basic and clinical biomedical sciences, the social sciences, physical sciences, research, education, and communications. In addition to current members of the committee, I invited a number of former committee members as well as other scientific and public representatives to participate in the special February session.

The purpose of the meeting was to seek the committee's advice on the guidelines proposed by the Recombinant Advisory Committee. The Advisory Committee to the Director was asked to determine whether, in their judgment, the guidelines balanced scientific responsibility to the public with scientific freedom to pursue new knowledge.

Public responsibility weighs heavily in this genetic research area. The scientific community must have the public's confidence that the goals of this profoundly important research accord respect to important ethical, legal, and social values of our society. A key element in achieving and maintaining this public trust is for the scentific community to ensure an openness and candor in its proceedings. The meetings of the Director's Advisory Committee, the Asilomar group, and the Recombinant Advisory Committee have reflected the intent of science to be an open community in considering the conduct of recombinant DNA experiments. At the Director's Advisory Committee meeting, there was ample opportunity for comment and an airing of the issues, not only by the committee members but by public witnesses as well. All major points of view were broadly represented.

I have been reviewing the guidelines in light of the comments and suggestions made by participants at that meeting, as well as the written comments received afterward. As part of that review I asked the Recombinant Advisory Committee to consider at their meeting of April 1–2, 1976, a number of selected issues raised by the commentators. I have taken those issues and the response of the Recombinant Advisory Committee into account in arriving at my decision on the guidelines. An analysis of the issues and the basis for my decision follow.

I. GENERAL POLICY CONSIDERATIONS

A word of explanation might be interjected at this point as to the nature of the studies in question. Within the past decade, enzymes capable of breaking DNA strands at specific sites and of coupling the broken fragments in new combinations were discovered, thus making possible the insertion of foreign genes into viruses or certain cell particles (plas-

mids). These, in turn, can be used as vectors to introduce the foreign genes into bacteria or into cells of plants or animals in test tubes. Thus transplanted, the genes may impart their hereditary properties to new hosts. These cells can be isolated and cloned—that is, bred into a genetically homogeneous culture. In general, there are two potential uses for the clones so produced: as a tool for studying the transferred genes, and as a new useful agent, say for the production of a scarce hormone.

Recombinant DNA research offers great promise, particularly for improving the understanding and possibly the treatment of various diseases. There is also a potential risk—that microorganisms with transplanted genes may prove hazardous to man or other forms of life. Thus special provisions are necessary for their containment.

All commentators acknowledged the exemplary responsibility of the scientific community in dealing publicly with the potential risks in DNA recombinant research and in calling for a self-imposed moratorium on certain experiments in order to assess potential hazards and devise appropriate guidelines. Most commentators agreed that the process leading to the formulation of the proposed guidelines was a most responsible and responsive one. Suggestions by the commentators on broad policy considerations are presented below. They relate to the science policy aspects of the guidelines, the implementation of the guidelines for NIH grantees and contractors, and the scope and impact of the guidelines nationally and internationally.

A. Science policy considerations

Commentators were divided on how best to steer a course between stifling research through excessive regulation and allowing it to continue with sufficient controls. Several emphasized that the public must have assurance that the controls afford adequate protection against potential hazards. In the views of these commentators, the burden is on the scientific community to show that the danger is minimal and that the benefits are substantial and far outweigh the risks.

Opinion differed on whether the proposed guidelines were an appropriate response to the potential benefits and hazards. Several found the guidelines to so exaggerate safety procedures that inquiry would be unnecessarily retarded, while others found the guidelines weighted toward promoting research. The issue was how to strike a reasonable balance—in fact, a proper policy "bias"—between concerns to "go slow" and those to progress rapidly.

There was strong disagreement about the nature and level of the possible hazards of recombinant DNA research. Several commentators believed that the hazards posed were unique. In their view, the occurrence of an accident or the escape of a vector could initiate an irreversible process, with a potential for creating problems many times greater than those arising from the multitude of genetic recombinations that occur spontaneously in nature. These commentators stress the moral obligation on the part of the scientific community to do no harm.

Other commentators, however, found the guidelines to be adequate to the hazards posed. In their view, the guidelines struck an appropriate balance so that research could proceed cautiously. Still other commentators found the guidelines too onerous and restrictive in light of the potential benefits of this research for medicine, agriculture, and industry. Some felt that the guidelines are perhaps more stringent than necessary given the available evidence on the likelihood of hazards, but supported them as a compromise that would best serve the scientific community and the public at large. Many commentators urged that the guidelines be adopted as soon as possible to afford more specific direction to this research area.

I understand and appreciate the concerns of those who urge that this research proceed because of the benefits and of those who urge caution because of potential hazards. The guidelines issued today allow the research to go forward in a manner responsive and appropriate to hazards that may be realized in the future.

The object of these guidelines is to ensure that experimental DNA recombination will have no ill effects on those engaged in the work, on the general public, or on the environment. The essence of their construction is subdivision of potential experiments by class, decision as to which experiments should be permitted at present, and assignment to these of certain procedures for containment of recombinant organisms.

Containment is defined as physical and biological. Physical containment involves the isolation of the research by procedures which have evolved over many years of experience in laboratories studying infectious microorganisms. P1 containment—the first *physical* containment level—is that used in most routine bacteriology laboratories. P2 and P3 afford increasing isolation of the research from the environment P4 represents the most extreme measures used for containing virulent pathogens, and permits no escape of contaminated air, wastes, or untreated materials. *Biological* containment is the use of vectors or hosts that are crippled by mutation so that the recombinant DNA is incapable of surviving under natural conditions.

The experiments now permitted under the guidelines involve no known additional hazard to the workers or the environment beyond the relatively low risk known to be associated with the source materials. The additional hazards are speculative and therefore not quantifiable. In a real sense they are considerably less certain than are the benefits now clearly derivable from the projected research.

For example, the ability to produce, through "molecular cloning," relatively large amounts of pure DNA from the chromosomes of any living organism will have a profound effect in many areas of biology. No other procedure, not even chemical synthesis, can provide pure material corresponding to particular genes. DNA "probes," prepared from the clones will yield precise evidence on the presence or absence, the organization, and the expression of genes in health and disease.

Potential medical advances were outlined by scientists active in this research area who were present at the meeting of the Director's Advisory Committee. Of enormous importance, for example, is the opportunity to explore the malfunctioning of cells in complicated diseases. Our ability to understand a variety of hereditary defects may be significantly enhanced, with amelioration of their expression a real possibility. There is the potential to elucidate mechanisms in certain cancers, particularly those that might be caused by viruses.

Instead of mere propagation of foreign DNA, the expression of the genes of one organism by the cell machinery of another may alter the new host and open opportunities for manipulating the biological properties of cells. In certain prokaryotes (organisms with a poorly developed nucleus, like bacteria), this exchange of genetic information occurs in nature. Such exchange explains, for instance, an important mechanism for the changing and spreading of resistance to antibiotics in bacteria. Beneficial effects of this mechanism might be the production of medically important compounds for the treatment and control of disease. Examples frequently cited are the production of insulin, growth hormone, specific antibodies, and clotting factors absent in victims of hemophilia.

Aside from the potential medical benefits, a whole host of other applications in science and technology have been envisioned. Examples are the large-scale production of enzymes for industrial use and the development of bacteria that could ingest and destroy oil spills in the sea. Potential benefits in agriculture include the enhancement of nitrogen fixation in certain plants, permitting increased food production.

While the projected research offers the possibility of many benefits, it must proceed only with assurance that potential hazards can be controlled or prevented. Some commentators are concerned that nature may maintain a barrier to the exchange of DNA between prokaryotes and eukaryotes (higher organisms, with a well-formed nucleus)—a barrier that can now be crossed by experimentalists. They further argue that expression of the foreign DNA may alter the host in unpredictable and undesirable ways. Conceivable harm could result if the altered host has a competitive advantage that would foster its survival in some niche within the ecosystem. Other commentators believe that the endless experiments in recombination of DNA which nature has conducted since the beginning of life on the earth, and which have accounted in part for the evolution of species, have most likely involved exchange of DNA between widely disparate species. They

argue that prokaryotes such as bacteria in the intestines of man do exchange DNA with this eukaryotic host and that the failure of the altered prokaryotes to be detected attests to a sharply limited capacity of such recombinants to survive. Thus nature, this argument runs, has already tested the probabilities of harmful recombination and any survivors of such are already in the ecosystem. The fact is that we do not know which of the above-stated propositions is corrected.

The interntaional scientific community, as exemplified by the Asilomar conference and the deliberations attendant upon preparation of the present guidelines, has indicated a desire to proceed with research in a conservative manner. And most of the considerable public commentary on the subject, while urging caution, has also favored proceeding. Three European groups have independently arrived at the opinion that recombinant DNA research should proceed with caution. These are the Working Party on Experimental Manipulation of the Genetic Composition of Micro-Organisms, whose "Ashby Report" was presented to Parliament in the United Kingdom by the Secretary of State for Education and Science in January 1975; the Advisory Committee on Medical Research of the World Health Organization, which issued a press release in July 1975; and the European Molecular Biology Organization Standing Committee on Recombinant DNA, meeting in February 1976.

There is no means for a flat proscription of such research throughout the world community of science. There is also no need to attempt it. It is likely that the evaluation engendered in the preparation and application of these guidelines will lead to beneficial review of some of the containment practices in other work that is not technically defined as recombinant DNA research.

Recombinant DNA research with which these guidelines are concerned involves microorganisms such as bacteria or viruses or cells of higher organisms growing in tissue culture. It is extremely important for the public to be aware that this research is not directed to altering of genes in humans although some of the techniques developed in this research may have relevance if this is attempted in the future.

NIH recognizes its responsibility to conduct and support research designed to determine the extent to which certain potentially harmful effects from recombinant DNA molecules may occur. Among these are experiments, to be conducted under maximum containment, that explore the capability of foreign genes to alter the character of host or vector, rendering it harmful, as through the production of toxic products.

Given the general desire that no rare and unexpected event arising from this research shall cause irreversible damage, it is obvious that merely to establish conservative rules of conduct for one group of scientists is not enough. The precautions must be uniformly and unanimously observed. Second, there must be full and timely exchange of experiences so that guidelines can be altered on the basis of new knowledge. The guidelines must also be implemented in a manner that protects all concerned—the scientific workers most likely to encounter unexpected hazards and all forms of life within our biosphere. The responsibility of the scientists involved is as inescapable and extreme as is their opportunity to beneficially enrich our understanding.

B. Implementation considerations within the NIH

All the commentators had suggestions concerning the structure and function of decision making as it relates to the principal investigator, the local biohazards committee, the peer review group, and the NIH Recombinant Advisory Committee. These comments and my response on the section of the guidelines relating to roles and responsibilities of investigators, their institutions, and the National Institutes of Health are presented below.

Of considerable concern to all commentators was the process by which NIH would proceed to implement the guidelines. The scientific community generally urged that there be no Federal regulations, while some of the public commentators recommended the regulatory process.

Many who opposed changing the proposed guidelines into Federal regulations expressed concern for flexibility and administrative efficiency, which could best be achieved, in their view, through voluntary compliance. Other commentators, however, believed it imperative to proceed toward regulation. In their view, the guidelines could be implemented for purposes of NIH funding and would govern the conduct of experiments until regulations were in effect. Another commentator who thought regulation would be harmful rather than helpful suggested that if there were to be regulations, they should be along lines similar to those that govern the sale, distribution, use, and disposal of radioisotopes.

The question of how best to proceed now that the guidelines have been released deserves careful attention. I share the concern of those who feel that the guidelines must remain flexible. It is especially important that there be opportunity to change them quickly, based on new information relating to scientific evidence, potential risks, or safety aspects of the research program.

The suggestions for regulation need further attention at this time. The process for regulation not only involves the Director of NIH, but also the Assistant Secretary for Health and the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare. These guidelines are being promulgated now in order to afford additional protection to all concerned. Consideration of their conversion to regulations can proceed with continuing review of their content and present and future implications. Meanwhile, the NIH shall continue to provide the opportunity for public comment and participation at least equivalent to that provided if steps towards regulations were to proceed immediately. The guidelines will be published in the FEDERAL REGISTER forthwith to allow for further public comment.

C. Implementation considerations beyond the purview of NIH

Special concern has been expressed by many commentators regarding the application of the guidelines to research outside NIH by investigators other than its grantees or contractors. It has been urged that the guidelines be made applicable to recombinant DNA research conducted or supported by other agencies in HEW and by NSF, ERDA, DoD, and other governmental departments. Most commentators believe that these or similar guidelines should also govern research in the private sector, including industry, voluntary organizations, and foundations. Many feel that experiments conducted in colleges, universities, and even in high schools require some form of monitoring. And finally, all agree that in view of the potential hazards of recombinant DNA research to the biosphere, some form of international understanding on guidelines for the research is essential.

The committee, in the proposed guidelines, has suggested as one means of control that a description of the physical and biological containment procedures practiced in a research project be included in the publication of research results. In the scientfic community this can be a powerful force for conformity, and we will undertake to present the recommendation to all appropriate journals. We are also prepared to take steps to disseminate the guidelines widely, and to arrange for a continual flow of information outward concerning the activities of the Recombinant Advisory Committee and the Advisory Committee to the Director, NIH, in the evolution of the guidelines and their implementation.

In response to these suggestions, I have already held a meeting with relevant HEW agencies and with representatives from other departments of the Federal Government. The purpose of the meeting was to exchange information on recombinant DNA research and to discuss the NIH guidelines. It served as an important beginning to address a common concern of these public institutions. A number of the representatives indicated that various departments might very well adopt the guidelines for research conducted both in-house and supported outside. Following up, I have begun preliminary discussions with the Assistant Secretary for Health and the Secretary of HEW, to determine possible methods to ensure adoption of the guidelines by all Federal agencies. Encouraged by these efforts, we held a meeting on June 2 with representatives of industry to provide them with full information about the guidelines and to help determine the present and future interests of industrial laboratories in this type of research. The meeting provided one of the first opportunities for industry representatives to convene for a discussion of this research area, and an industry com-

mittee under the auspices of the Pharmaceutical Manufacturers Association will be formed to review the guidelines for potential application to the drug industry. Further meetings will be scheduled with other groups that have an active interest in recombinant DNA research.

It is my hope that the guidelines will be voluntarily adopted and honored by all who support or conduct such research throughout the United States, and that at least very similar guidelines will obtain throughout the rest of the world. NIH places the highest priority on efforts to inform and to work with international organizations, such as the World Health Organization and the International Council of Scientific Unions, with a view to achieving a consensus on safety standards in this most important research area.

There has been considerable international cooperation and activity in the past, and I expect it to continue in the future. The aforementioned Ashby Report, presented to Parliament in January 1975, describes the advances in knowledge and possible benefits to society of the experiments involving recombinant DNA molecules, and attempts to assess the hazards in these techniques. The Asilomar meeting also had a number of international representatives, as mentioned previously. The European Molecular Biology Organization (EMBO) has been involved in considering guidelines for recombinant DNA research. They have closely followed the activities of NIH, and will thus be encouraged. I believe, to monitor their research with augmented cooperation and coordination. For example, EMBO recently announced plans for a voluntary registry of recombinant DNA research in Europe. Following this EMBO initiative, NIH shall similarly maintain a voluntary registry of investigators and institutions engaged in such research in the United States. Plans for establishing this registry are under way.

D. Environmental policy considerations

A number of commentators urged NIH to consider preparing an environmental impact statement on recombinant DNA research activity. They evoked the possibility that organisms containing recombinant DNA molecules might escape and affect the environment in potentially harmful ways.

I am in full agreement that the potentially harmful effects of this research on the environment should be assessed. As discussed throughout this paper, the guidelines are premised on physical and biological containment to prevent the release or propagation of DNA recombinants outside the laboratory. Deliberate release of organisms into the environment is prohibited. In my view, the stipulated physical and biological containment ensures that this research will proceed with a high degree of safety and precaution. But I recognize the legitimate concern of those urging that an environmental impact assessment be done. In view of this concern and ensuing public debate, I have reviewed the appropriateness of such an assessment and have directed that one be undertaken.

The purpose of this assessment will be to review the environmental effects, if any, of research that may be conducted under the guidelines. The assessment will provide further opportunity for all concerned to address the potential benefits and hazards of this most important research activity. I expect a draft of the environmental impact statement should be completed by September 1 for comment by the scientific community, Federal and State agencies, and the general public.

It should be noted that the development of the guidelines was in large part tantamount to conducting an environmental impact assessment. For example, the objectives of recombinant DNA research, and alternate approaches to reach those objectives, have been considered. The potential hazards and risks have been analyzed. Alternative approaches have been thoroughly considered, to maximize safety and minimize potential risk. And an elaborate review structure has been created to achieve these safety objectives. From a public policy viewpoint, however, the environmental impact assessment will be yet another review that will provide further opportunity for the public to participate and comment on the conduct of this research.

II. METHODS OF CONTAINMENT

Comments on the containment provisions of the proposed guidelines were directed to the definition of both physical and biological containment and to the safety and effectiveness of the prescribed levels. Several commentators found the concept of physical containment imprecise and too subject to the possibility for human error. Others questioned the concept of biological containment in terms of its safety and purported effectiveness in averting potential hazards. The commentators were divided on which method of containment would provide the most effective and safe system to avoid hazards. Several suggested that each of the physical containment levels be more fully explained.

W. Emmett Barkley, Ph.D., Director of the Office of Research Safety, National Cancer Institute, was asked to review the section on physical containment in light of these comments. Dr. Barkley convened a special committee of safety and health experts, who met to consider not only this section of the guidelines but also the section on the roles and responsibilities of researchers and their institutions. The committee thoroughly reviewed the section on physical containment and recommended a number of changes. The Recombinant Advisory Committee, meeting on April 1–2, 1976, reviewed the recommendations of the Barkley group. These are incorporated, with editorial revisions, in the final version of the guidelines.

The present section on physical containment is directly responsive to those commentators who asked for greater detail and explanation. Although different in detail, the four levels of containment approximate those given by the Center for Disease Control for human etiologic agents and by the National Cancer Institute for oncogenic viruses. For each of the proposed levels, optional items have been excluded, and only those items deemed absolutely necessary for safety are presented. Necessary facilities, practices, and equipment are specified. To give further guidance to investigators and their institutions, a supplement to the guidelines explains more fully safety practices appropriate to recombinant DNA research. And a new section has been added to ensure that shipment of recombinant DNA materials conforms, where appropriate, to the standards, prescribed by the U.S. Public Health Service, the Department of Transportation, and the Civil Aeronautics Board.

The section on physical containment is carefully designed to offer a constructive approach to meeting potential hazards for recombinant experiments at all levels of presumed risk. Certain commentators had suggested that the first level of physical containment (P1) be merged with the second level (P2). This suggestion, however, would tend to apply overly stringent standards for some experiments and might result in a lowering of standards necessary at the second level. I believe the level of control must be consistent with a reasonable estimate of the hazard; and the section on physical containment does provide this consistency. Accordingly, the first and second levels of physical containment remain as separate sections in the guidelines.

Because of the nature and operation of facilities required for experiments to be done at the fourth level of containment (P4), a provision has been included that the NIH shall review such facilities prior to funding them for recombinant DNA studies. The situation merits the special attention of experts who have maximum familiarity with the structure, operation, and potential problems of P4 installations. Several commentators advocated that NIH arrange for sharing of P4 facilities, both in the NIH intramural program and in institutions supported through NIH awards. In response to these suggestions, we are currently reviewing our facilities, including those at the Frederick Cancer Research Center (Fort Detrick), to determine how such a program can best be devised. It is most important that P4 facilities be made available to investigators. It should be noted that incidents of infection by even the most highly infectious and dangerous organisms are extremely infrequent at P4 facilities, and therefore the potential for hazard in certain complex experiments in recombinant DNA research is considerably reduced.

III. PROHIBITED EXPERIMENTS

1. Practically all commentators supported the present prohibition of certain experiments. There were suggestions for a clearer definition of the prohibition of certain experiments where increased antibiotic resistance may result. And it

was urged by some that the prohibition be broadened to include experiments that result in resistance to any antibiotic, irrespective of its use in medicine or agriculture. Consideration of such a suggestion must take into account that antibiotic resistance occurs naturally among bacteria, and that resistance is a valuable marker in the study of microbial genetics in general, and recombinants in particular.

In view of these concerns, however, the Recombinant Advisory Committee was asked to reconsider carefully the prohibition and related sections concerning antibiotic resistance. The committee noted that the prohibition relating to drug resistance was intended to ban those experiments that could compromise drug use in controlling disease agents in veterinary as well as human medicine and this is now clearly stated.

In the draft guidelines there were two statements concerning resistance to drugs which related to experiments with *E. coli*. The statements appeared to allow experiments that would extend the range of resistance of this bacterium to therapeutically useful drugs and disinfectants, and thus seemed to be in conflict with the general prohibition on such research. There are numerous reports in the scientific literature indicating that *E. coli* can acquire resistance to all antibiotics known to act against it. Since *E. coli* acquires resistance naturally, the prohibition directed against increasing resistance does not apply. The ambiguous statements have been deleted from the present guidelines. On the other hand, new language has been inserted in the section dealing with other prokaryote species to set containment levels for permitted experiments.[1]

2. The Recombinant Advisory Committee was also asked to clarify whether the prohibition of use of DNA derived from pathogenic organisms (those classified as 3, 4, and 5 by the Center for Disease Control, USPHS) also included the DNA from any host infected with these organisms. The committee explained that this prohibition did extend to experiments with cells known to be so infected. To avoid misunderstanding, the prohibition as now worded includes such cells. In addition, the prohibitions have been extended to include moderate-risk oncogenic viruses, as defined by the National Cancer Institute, and cells known to be infected with them.

3. Two other issues relating to the section on prohibited experiments were raised by Roy Curtiss III, Ph.D., Professor, Department of Microbiology, University of Alabama School of Medicine, Birmingham, who is a member of the Recombinant Advisory Committee. Dr. Curtiss noted that for the class of experiments prohibited on the basis of production of highly toxic substances, only substances from micro-organisms were cited as examples. He suggested that other examples be included, such as venoms from insects and snakes. The committee approved the suggestion and I concur.

In the proposed guidelines, release of organisms containing recombinant RNA molecules into the environment was prohibited unless a series of controlled tests had been done to leave no reasonable doubt of safety. Dr. Curtiss felt that the guidelines should provide greater specificity for testing and should include some form of review prior to release of the organism. I have decided that the guidelines should, for the present, prohibit any deliberate release of organisms containing recombinant DNA into the environment. With the present limited state of knowledge, it seems highly unlikely that there will be in the near future, any recombinant organism that is universally accepted as being beneficial to introduce into the environment. When the scientific evidence becomes available that the potential benefits of recombinant organisms, particularly for agriculture, are about to be realized, then the guidelines can be altered to meet the needs for release. It is most important that the potential environmental impact of the release be considered.

IV. PERMISSIBLE EXPERIMENTS: E. COLIK-12 HOST-VECTOR SYSTEMS

The continued use of *E. coli* as a host has drawn considerable comment, including some suggestions that its use be prohibited presently or within a specified time limit. It should be stressed that the use of *E. coli* as detailed in the guidelines is limited to *E. coli* K–12, a strain that has been carried in the laboratory for decades and does not involve the use of any strain of *E. coli* that is freshly isolated from a natural source. *E. coli* K–12 does not usually colonize the normal bowel, even when given in large doses, and exhibits little if any multiplication while passing through the alimentary canal. For years it has been the subject of more intense investigation than any other single organism, and knowledge of its genetic makeup and recombinant behavior exceeds greatly that pertaining to any other organism. I believe that because of this experience, *E. coli* K–12 will provide a host-vector system that is safer than other candidate microorganisms.

NIH recognizes the importance of supporting the development of alternative host-vector systems (such as *B. subtilis*, which has no ecological niche in man) and will encourage such development. It should be noted, however, that for each new host-vector system, the same questions of risk from altered properties attendant upon the presence of recombinant genes will apply as apply to *E. coli*. NIH does not believe it wise to set a time limit on replacement of *E. coli* systems by other organisms.

There were specific suggestions concerning the three levels of biological containment prescribed for use of *E. coli* K–12 host-vectors. Some commentators requested a more detailed explanation of the adequacy of protection for laboratory personnel with the first level of containment (EK1).[2] Sections of the guidelines dealing with physical containment and roles and responsibilities now specify the need for safety practices and accident plans.

For the second level of containment (EK2), it is required that a cloned DNA fragment be contained in a host-vector system that has no greater than a 10^{-8} probability of survival in a nonpermissive or natural environment. It was suggested that the selection of this level of biological containment and the appropriate tests for verification be more fully explained in the guidelines. The committee, in responding to a request for further examination of this point, reviewed at considerable length the testing for an EK2 system and recommended certain modifications. We have accepted the committee's new language that better explains testing of survival of a genetic marker carried on the vector, preferably on an inserted NDA fragment.

Possible tests to determine the level of biological containment afforded by these altered host-vector systems are outlined in this section. Because this is such a new area of scientific research and development, however, it is inappropriate to standardize such testing at the present time. Standards will gradually be set as more experience with EK2 host-vector systems is acquired. The committee, for example, during its April 1976 meetings gave its first approval to an EK2 host-vector system. What is necessary is that new and more effective tests be devised by investigators, and this effort is very likely to occur under the present guidelines. For example, one task recognized by the committee is to clarify how survival of the organism and the cloned DNA should be defined in terms of temperature, medium, and other variables.

It is also very important to note here that the stringent requirements set by the committee for EK2 biological containment jeopardize considerably the capacity of such crippled organisms to survive and replicate even under permissive laboratory conditions. More experience will be required to determine whether EK2 containment will permit some lines of important research to be followed.

Several commentators suggested that methods and procedures to confirm an

[1] Specifically, experiments that would extend resistance to therapeutically useful drugs must use P3 physical containment plus a host-vector comparable to EK1, or P2 containment plus a host-vector comparable to EK2.

[2] The EK1 system presently consists of a battery of different vectors and of *E. coli* K–12 mutants, all of which afford a considerable degree of biological containment. The diversity of vectors and of host mutants in this battery has permitted a wide range of important scientific questions to be attacked. For example, the availability of different vectors with cleavage sites for different restriction endonucleases have increased the kind of DNA segments that can be cloned. By contrast, the first EK2 host-vector systems are only now being considered by the Recombinant Advisory Committee. While NIH is supporting the development of more EK2 host-vector systems, it is not expected that a battery equivalent to that available for the EK1 system will be certified by the Recombinant Advisory Committee in the near future.

EK system at the third level of containment (EK3) be more fully explained. The Recombinant Advisory Committee was asked to consider this suggestion. After considerable discussion the committee declined to define the procedures more fully at this time, because development of an EK3 system is still far enough in the future not to warrant specific testing procedures. Further, it is not clear what tests are best suited. The language, therefore, remains general. The committee, however, is aware of the concerns for a more completely defined system of testing, and has considered the possibility of organizing a symposium for purposes of designating tests. In my view, more fully developed protocols for testing EK3 systems are warranted, and it is necessary that guidelines here be more fully developed before the committee proceeds to certify such a system. In this regard the NIH is prepared through the National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases to support contracts to accomplish this task. We will seek the advice and assistance of the committee to define the scope of necessary work.

These guidelines also include a statement that for the time being no EK2 or EK3 host-vector system will be considered *bona fide* until the Recombinant Advisory Committee has certified it. I share the concern of the commentators that new host-vector systems require the highest quality of scientific review and scrutiny. At this early stage of development, it is most important that the committee provide that scrutiny. Further, I believe that until more experience has been gained, the committee should encourage and the NIH support research that will independently confirm and augment the data on which certification of EK2 host-vector systems are based.

V. CLASSIFICATION OF EXPERIMENTS USING THE E. COLI K–12 CONTAINMENT SYSTEMS

The guidelines assign different levels of containment for experiments in which DNA from different sources is to be introduced into an *E. coli* K–12 host-vector system. The variation is based on both facts and assumptions. There are some prokaryotes (bacteria) which constantly exchange DNA with *E. coli*. Here it is assumed that experimental conditions beyond those obtained in careful, routine microbiology laboratories are superfluous, because any exchange experiments have undoubtedly been performed already in nature.

In every instance of artificial recombination, consideration must be given to the possibility that foreign DNA may be translated into protein (expressed), and also to the possibility that normally repressed genes of the host may be expressed and thus change, undesirably, the characteristics of the cell. It is assumed that the more similar the DNAs of donor and host, the greater the probability of expression of foreign DNA, or of possible derepression of host genes. In those cases where the donor exchanges DNA with *E. coli* in nature, it is unlikely that recombination experiments will create new genetic combinations. When prokaryote donors not known to exchange DNA with *E. coli* in nature are used, however, there is a greater potential for new genetic combinations to be formed and be expressed. Therefore, it is required that experiments involving prokaryotic DNA from a donor that is not known to exchange DNA with *E. coli* in nature be carried out at a higher level of containment. Recombination using prokaryotic DNA from an organism known to be highly pathogenic is prohibited.

There are only limited data available concerning the expression of DNA from higher forms of life (eukaryotes) in *E. coli* (or any other prokaryote). Therefore, the containment prescriptions for experiments inserting eukaryotic DNA into prokaryotes are based on risks having quite uncertain probabilities.

On the assumption that a prokaryote host might translate eukaryotic DNA, it is further presumed that the product of that foreign gene would be most harmful to man if it were an enzyme, hormone, or other protein that was similar (homologous) to proteins already produced by or active in man. An example is a bacterium that could produce insulin. Such a "rogue" bacterium could be of benefit if contained, a nuisance or possibly dangerous if capable of surviving in nature. This is one reason that the higher the phylogenetic order of the eukaryote, the higher the recommended containment, at least until the efficiency of expression of DNA from higher eukaryotes in prokaryotes can be determined.

There is a second, more concrete reason for scaling containment upward as the eukaryote host becomes similiar to man. This is the concern that viruses capable of propagating in human tissue, and possibly causing diseases, can contaminate DNA, replicate in prokaryote hosts and infect the experimentalist. Such risks are greatest when total DNA from donor tissue is used in "shotgun" recombinant experiments; it diminishes to much lower levels when pure cloned DNA is used.

The commentators were clearly divided on the classification of containment criteria for different kinds of recombinant DNAs. Many commentators considered the guidelines too stringent and rigid. Others viewed the guidelines in certain instances as too permissive. And still others endorsed the guidelines as sensible and reasonable, affording the public an enormous degree of protection from the speculative risks. Several suggestions were made for the specific classes of experiments, and they follow:

1. Comment on the use of DNA from animals and plants in recombinant experiments varied widely. Some commentators suggested banning the use of DNA from primates, other mammals, and birds. Others suggested that higher levels of containment be used for all such experiments. Still others believed that the guidelines were too strict for experiments of this class. I have carefully reviewed the issues raised by the commentators and the responses of the committee to certain queries concerning use of animal and plant DNA in these experiments.

In my view, the classification for the use of DNA from primates, other mammals, and birds is appropriate to the potential hazards that might be posed. The physical and biological containment levels are very strict. For example, biological containment levels are at EK2 or EK3, and will effectively preclude experimentation until useful EK2 and EK3 systems are available. EK2 systems are still in the initial stages of development, and the first system was only certified at the most recent meeting of the Recombinant Advisory Committee. An EK3 host-vector system has yet to be tested, and its certification is far enough in the future to place a moratorium on those experiments requiring biological containment at an EK3 level. The physical containment levels of P3 or P4 themselves afford a very high degree of protection. I am satisfied that the guidelines demonstrate the caution and prudence that must govern the conduct of experiments in this category.

The guidelines allow reduced containment levels for primate DNA when it is derived from embryonic tissue or germline cells. This is based on evidence that embryonic material is less likely to contain viruses than is tissue from the adult. Obviously, the embryonic tissue must be free of adult tissue, and the present guidelines so indicate.

I have also carefully considered the special concerns arising from the use of DNA from cold-blooded vertebrates and other cold-blooded animals, because several commentators questioned the basis of lower physical and biological containment levels for DNA from these species. The Recombinant Advisory Committee has debated this extensively, and they were asked to do so once again in April.[3] The committee has now recommended high containment levels (P3+EK2) when the DNA is from a cold-blooded vertebrate known to produce a potent toxin. That recommendation is included in the present guidelines. Where no toxin is involved the committee supported lower

[3] A committee member, David S. Hogness, Ph. D., Professor, Department of Biochemistry, Stanford University, California, submitted a statement in support of lower containment levels based on current scientific evidence. That evidence is based on certain differences between cold- and warm-blooded vertebrates. One of the criteria used for the evaluation of the relative risk that might be encountered with different levels of shotgun experiment is the degree of sequence homology between the DNA of the given species and that of humans. This criterion is used to estimate the likelihood that segments of DNA from the given species might be integrated into the human genome by recombination; the greater the homology, the greater the likelihood of integration. Studies of sequence homologies indicate that there is a considerable degree of homology between human DNA and DNA from other primates, much less homology between primates and other mammals, and even lower but detectable homology between birds and primates. By contrast, no significant homologies between cold-blooded vertebrates and primates have been detected.

containment levels. The guidelines specify P2+EK2 levels for such work. There was considerable discussion concerning the advisability of recommending lower containment (P2+EK1) when the DNA is isolated from embryonic tissue or germ-line cells from cold-blooded vertebrates. Those supporting lower containment levels argued that the justification for P2+ EK2 was the possibility that cold-blooded vertebrates may carry viruses and that the distinction between adult and germ-cell tissue is real. Others argued that, contrary to the situation with primate DNA, viruses are not a central problem with cold-blooded vertebrates and therefore no distinction should be made on the basis of tissue origin. Finally, the committee recommended, on a divided vote (8 to 4), to adopt P2+EK1 when the cold-blooded vertebrate DNA is isolated from embryonic tissue or germ-line cells. Upon reviewing these considerations, I have decided to retain the containment levels for embryonic or germ-line DNA from cold-blooded vertebrates as recommended by the committee.

In April the committee also reviewed, at our request, the classification of experiments where DNA is derived from other cold-blooded animals or lower eukaryotes. Several commentators, for example, had been concerned about the fact that insects are known to carry agents pathogenic to man. In the committee review, it was noted that viruses carried by insects and known to transmit disease to man are RNA rather than DNA viruses and do not reproduce via DNA copied from RNA. In order, however, to make the intent clearer, the guidelines have been rewritten for experiments of this class. New language is inserted to ensure that strict containment levels are employed when the DNA comes from known pathogens or species known to carry them. Further, to reduce the potential hazards, we have also included in the guidelines the requirement that any insect must be grown under laboratory conditions for at least 10 generations prior to its use as a DNA source.

2. As alluded to above, certain commentators expressed concern that when *E. coli* becomes the host of recombinant DNA from prokaryotes with which DNA is not usually exchanged, there is hazard of altered host characteristics resulting from translation of the DNA into functioning proteins. The committee was asked to review the guidelines and take into account this potential hazard. They agreed that the containment levels should be increased for this category of experiment, from P2+EK1 to either P2+EK2 or P3+EK1. That recommendation is included in the present guidelines.

Comments were made concerning that class of experiments in which the recombinant DNA, regardless of source, has been cloned. A clone is a population of cells derived from a single cell and therefore all the cells are presumed to be genetically identical. As outlined in the proposed guidelines, clones could be used at lower containment levels if they had been rigorously characterized and shown to be free of harmful genes. Several commentators inquired how the characterization was to be performed and the freedom from harmful genes demonstrated. Although the committee acknowledges that these terms are unavoidably vague, they do cite appropriate scientific methods to make relevant determinations. Again, this is a rapidly changing area and more clarity and precision can be expected with experience. Reduced containment requirements for this class of experiment are warranted because of the purified nature of clones. Further, the granting agency must approve the clone before containment conditions can be reduced, thus providing an additional element of review.

4. Another comment was related to the use of DNA from organelles (intracellular elements that contain special groups of genes for particular cell functions). Concern was expressed about the potential contamination of purified organelle DNA with DNA from viruses because of the similarity of their structures. The committee agrees, and the guidelines now specify a requirement, that the organelles be isolated prior to extracting DNA, as a further means of reducing the hazard of viral contamination.

5. Some commentators were troubled about the lowering of containment for that class of experiments involving recombinations with cell DNA segments purified by chemical or physical methods. They asked that procedures for determining the state of purification be more fully detailed and that the Recombinant Advisory Committee certify the purity. There are, however, appropriate techniques, such as gel electrophoresis, with which a purity of 99 percent by mass can be achieved and ascertained. There is no way for the committee to certify these results beyond repeating the experiments themselves. These techniques are well documented and described in the literature. I do not believe it is necessary or feasible for the committee to review each procedure for purification of DNA.

6. Comments were made concerning the use of DNA derived from animal viruses. It was urged that containment levels for this class of experiment be increased. On the basis of my review, I find the containment conditions appropriate to the potential hazard posed. As defined in the guidelines, experiments are to be done at very strict levels of containment and these can be lowered only when the cloned DNA recombinants have been shown to be free of possibly harmful genes by suitable biochemical and biological tests. This also pertains to DNA that is copied from RNA viruses. In no instance are the guidelines more lenient, and in most instances they are more stringent than conditions obtaining in many laboratories where such viruses are studied in non-DNA-recombinant experiments.

VI. CLASSIFICATION OF EXPERIMENTS USING CONTAINMENT SYSTEMS OTHER THAN E. COLI K–12

1. No issue with regard to these guidelines raised more comment than the use of animal viruses as vectors. Of special concern to many commentators was the use of the simian (monkey) virus 40 (hereafter "SV40"). Some suggested a complete ban on the use of this virus; others urged its retention as a vector. SV40 is not known to produce any disease in man, although it can be grown in human cells and on very rare occasions has been isolated from humans. Many humans have received SV40 virus inadvertently in vaccines prepared from virus grown in monkey kidney-cell cultures. An intensive search has been made and is continuing for evidence that SV40 might cause cancer or be otherwise pathogenic for man. At present, it is my view that the extensive knowledge we have of SV40 virus provides us with sufficient sophistication to ensure its safe handling under the conditions developed for its use in the guidelines.

I believe work with SV40 should continue under the cost careful conditions, but I do recognize and appreciate the concerns expressed over its possible harmful effects in humans. In light of these concerns, I asked the Recombinant Advisory Committee to review this section of the guidelines. The committee reconsidered the containment conditions for this class of experiments and judged them appropriate to meet the potential hazards.[4]

This class of experiments will proceed under the most careful and stringent conditions. Work with SV40 virus will be done at the maximum level of physical containment (P4). The extraordinary precautions required in a P4 facility lessen the likelihood of a potential hazard from this work. Only defective SV40 virus will be used as vector; that is, the SV40 virus particles that carry the foreign DNA cannot multiply by themselves. When a number of strict conditions are met, this work will be permitted to go on at the third level of containment (P3), which in itself requires care and precision. It should be noted that SV40 virus and its DNA can be efficiently disinfected by Clorox and autoclaving. These are customary procedures for disinfecting glassware and other items used in SV40 animal-cell work.

Some commentators suggested that the containment criteria for experiments using polyoma virus as the vector be strengthened. There is no evidence that polyoma infects humans or replicates to any significant extent in human cells. It holds promise as a vector, as is more fully documented in an appendix to these guidelines.

2. Several commentators found the guidelines inadequate regarding experiments with plant host-vector systems. Because NIH shared these concerns, a group with extensive experience with plants was appointed to review this section. The group met concurrently with

[4] One member dissented from this position. During the discussion, additional language was recommended (and adopted) to ensure that the defective SV40–virus/helper-virus system, with its inserted non-SV40 DNA segment, does not replicate in human cells with significantly more efficiency than does SV40.

the Recombinant Advisory Committee in April 1976 and made several modifications. The suggested revisions were acceptable to the full committee, and we have included them in the guidelines.

The modifications are responsive to the stated concerns of the commentators. A description of greenhouse facilities is given, and physical containment conditions have been modified to take into account operations with whole plants. On the whole, the respective portions of the guidelines relating to plants are more fully explained and the intent is clarified.

I have also accepted the recommendation of the subcommittee to lower the biological containment level from EK2 to EK1 for experiments in which the DNA from plants is used in conjunction with the *E. coli* K-12 host-vector system, thereby setting containment in this instance at the same level required for experiments with lower-eukaryote DNA.

VII. ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES

1. Most commentators had suggestions for the section on the roles and responsibilities of investigators, their local institutions, and NIH. Commentators generally urged openness, candor, and public participation in the process, emphasizing shared responsibility and accountability from the local to the national level. We reviewed that section of the guidelines in light of these comments and have asked the Recombinant Advisory Committee to review certain issues.

It is clear that much of the success of the guidelines will lie in the wisdom with which they are implemented. Because of the importance of this section, especially in terms of safety programs and plans, we have carefully weighed the comments and suggestions made in this regard. NIH has a special responsibility to take a leading role in ensuring that safety programs are part of all recombinant DNA research. Dr. Barkley and a specially convened committee were asked to provide greater detail for safety, accident, and training plans for this section of the guidelines. Based on their recommendations, the section has been extensively rewritten to clarify the respective responsibilities of the principal investigator, the institution (including the institutional biohazards committee), the NIH inital review group (study section), the NIH Recombinant DNA Molecule Program Advisory Committee, and NIH staff.

This section has a definitive administrative framework for assuring that safety is an essential and integrated component of research involving recombinant DNA molecules. The guidelines require investigators to institute, monitor, and evaluate containment and safety practices and procedures. Before research is done, the investigator must have safety and accident plans in place and training exercises for the staff well under way.

Some commentators suggested that the investigator be required to obtain informed consent of laboratory personnel prior to their participation. Rather than rely explicitly on an informed consent document, the guidelines now make the investigator responsible for advising his program and support staff as to the nature and assessment of the real and potential biohazards. He must explain and provide for any advised or requested precautionary medical policies, vaccinations, or serum collections. Further, an appendix to the guidelines includes detailed explanations for dealing with accidents, as well as instructions for the training of staff in safety and accident procedures.

In response to suggestions for epidemiological monitoring, the guidelines now require the principal investigator to report certain categories of accidents in writing, to appropriate officials. NIH is investigating procedures for long-term surveillance of workers engaged in recombinant DNA research.

2. A number of comments on the role and responsibilities of the institutional biohazards committee were received. Comments were directed to the structure of the committee, the scope of its responsibility, and the methods for operation. Comments on structure included suggestions that the committee have a broadly based representation, especially in terms of health and safety expertise. Some others suggested NIH require certain classes of representation. In response to these suggestions, the guidelines now recommend membership from a diversity of disciplines relevant to recombinant DNA molecule technology, biological safety, and engineering.

For broader representation beyond the immediate scientific expertise, the guidelines now recommend that local committees should possess, or have available, the competence necessary to determine the acceptability of their findings in terms of applicable laws, regulations, standards of practice, community attitudes, and health and environmental considerations. The names of and relevant background information on the committee members will be reported to NIH.

In response to suggestions that decisions of the committee be made publicly available, the guidelines now recommend that minutes of the meetings should be kept and made available for public inspection.

Commentators generally approved of the responsibility given to the institutional biohazards committee to serve as a source of advice and reference to the investigator on scientific and safety questions. It was further suggested that the committee's responsibility be broadened in the development, monitoring, and evaluation of safety standards and procedures. In response to these suggestions, the guidelines now indicate that the institutional biohazards committee has the responsibility to certify, and recertify annually, to NIH that the facilities, procedures, practices, training, and expertise of involved personnel have been reviewed and approved. The Recombinant Advisory Committee suggested that examination might be unnecessary for P1 facilities, but we believe that all facilities should be reviewed to emphasize the importance of safety programs.

Some commentators suggested that the guidelines should stipulate that the local committees be required to determine the containment conditions to be imposed for a given project (which the draft guidelines specifically noted was not their responsibility). The Recombinant Advisory Committee took exception to this suggestion. They urged NIH not to include these conditions as local requirements, arguing among other things that review by the NIH study sections would provide the necessary scrutiny at the national level and assure uniformity of standards in application of the guidelines. I do not believe that NIH should require the local institution to have its biohazards committee assess what containment conditions are required for a given project. On the other hand, the guidelines should not prohibit the local institution from having its biohazards committee perform this function. Accordingly, I have deleted the prohibition that appeared in the proposed guidelines.

Another suggestion was that the local committee ensure that research is carried out in accordance with standards and procedures under the Occupational Safety and Health Act (OSHA). This is an area of importance to the local institutions under Federal and State law, but need not be included as a requirement in the guidelines. NIH will maintain liaison with the Occupational Safety and Health Administration (Department of Labor) to ensure maximum Federal cooperation in this venture.

I would also encourage all institutions, as suggested by several commentators, to review their insurance compensation programs to determine whether their laboratory personnel, in the research area, are covered for injuries.

3. The commentators approved of having the NIH study sections responsible for making an independent evaluation of the classification of the proposed research under the guidelines, along with the customary judgment of the scientific merit of each grant application. This additional element of review will ensure careful attention to potential hazards in the research activity. The study sections will also scrutinize the proposed safeguards. Biological safety expertise shall be available to the study section for consultation and guidance in this regard.

4. Several commentators made suggestions concerning the structure, function, and scope of responsibility of the NIH Recombinant DNA Molecule Program Advisory Committee.

Comments on possible structural mechanisms for decision making included suggestions that there be a scientific and technical committee and a general advisory public policy committee. It was also suggested that the scientific committee include scientists who are not actively engaged in recombinant research, and that the public policy committee have a broad scientific and public representation.

I have carefully reviewed these comments and suggestions. In response, the following structure has been devised. The Recombinant Advisory Committee shall serve as the scientific and technical committee. Its membership shall continue to

include scientists who represent disciplines actively engaged in recombinant DNA research. In my view, it is most important that this committee have the necessary expertise to assure that the guidelines are of the highest scientific quality. The committee has provided this expertise in the past, and it must continue to do so. The committee shall also include members from other scientific disciplines.

It should be noted that the present committee recommended on its own initiative that a nonscientist be appointed. Emmette S. Redford, Ph.D., LL.D., Ashbel Smith Professor of Government and Public Affairs at the Lyndon B. Johnson School of Public Affairs, University of Texas at Austin, serves in that capacity. An ethicist has also been nominated for appointment.

The Advisory Committee to the Director, NIH, shall serve to provide the broader public policy perspectives. This committee, at its meeting on February 9–10, 1976, reviewed the proposed guidelines with the participation of public witnesses, and shall continue to provide such review for future activities of the Recombinant Advisory Committee.

In response to suggestions, the responsibilities of the Recombinant Advisory Committee have been expanded. In addition to reviewing the guidelines for possible modification as scientific evidence warrants, the committee will certify EK2 and EK3 systems. In response to requests by the investigator, local committee, or study section, the committee will also provide evaluation and review in order to advise on levels of required containment, on lowering of requirements when cloned recombinants are to be used, and on questions concerning potential biohazard and adequacy of containment provisions.

Commentators also asked that the committee review ongoing research initiated prior to the implementation of the guidelines. Now that the guidelines are being released, NIH-funded investigators in this field will be asked to give assurance, within a given period, that they will comply. Any investigators who constructed clones under the Asilomar guidelines will be asked to petition NIH for special consideration of their case, if the new guidelines require higher containment than did the Asilomar guidelines. Here the advice of the Recombinant Advisory Committee will be sought.

There were also suggestions that the committee certify chemical purification of recombinant DNA, but as I indicated earlier, these procedures are too well known to require NIH monitoring.

5. In light of comments received, NIH will provide review, through appropriate NIH offices, of data from institutional biohazards committees (including accident reports) and will ensure dissemination of these findings as appropriate. Dr. William Gartland will head the newly created NIH Office of Recombinant DNA Activities for these purposes. In addition, NIH will provide for rapid dissemination of information through its Nucleic Acid Recombinant Scientific Memoranda (NARSM), distributed by the National Institute for Allergy and Infectious Diseases. NIH will also provide an appropriate mechanism for approving and certifying clones before containment conditions can be lowered.

With these extended modifications, the section of the guidelines dealing with roles and responsibilities now sets forth a more fully developed review structure involving the principal investigator, local biohazards committees, and the Recombinant Advisory Committee, as well as peer review committees. Guidelines now provide extensive opportunity for advice, from the local to the national level. Several levels of review and scrutiny are provided, ensuring the highest standards for scientific merit and conditions for safety.

The Recombinant Advisory Committee in conjunction with the Director's Advisory Committee shall continue to serve as an ongoing forum for examining progress in the technology and safety of recombinant DNA research. Their responsibility, and that of the NIH Director, is to ensure that the guidelines, through modification when called for, reflect the soundest scientific and safety evidence as it accrues in this area. Their task, in a sense, is just beginning.

DONALD S. FREDRICKSON,
Director,
National Institute of Health.

GUIDELINES FOR RESEARCH INVOLVING RECOMBINANT DNA MOLECULES

JUNE 1976

I. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of these guidelines is to recommend safeguards for research on recombinant DNA molecules to the National Institutes of Health and to other institutions that support such research. In this context we define recombinant DNAs as molecules that consist of different segments of DNA which have been joined together in cell-free systems, and which have the capacity to infect and replicate in some host cell, either autonomously or as an integrated part of the host's genome.

This is the first attempt to provide a detailed set of guidelines for use by study sections as well as practicing scientists for evaluating research on recombinant DNA molecules. We cannot hope to anticipate all possible lines of imaginative research that are possible with this powerful new methodology. Nevertheless, a considerable volume of written and verbal contributions from scientists in a variety of disciplines has been received. In many instances the views presented to us were contradictory. At present, the hazards may be guessed at, speculated about, or voted upon, but they cannot be known absolutely in the absence of firm experimental data—and, unfortunately, the needed data were, more often than not, unavailable. Our problem then has been to construct guidelines that allow the promise of the methodology to be realized while advocating the considerable caution that is demanded by what we and others view as potential hazards.

In designing these guidelines we have adopted the following principles, which are consistent with the general conclusions that were formulated at the International Conference on Recombinant DNA Molecules held at Asilomar Conference Center, Pacific Grove, California, in February 1975 (3): (i) There are certain experiments for which the assessed potential hazard is so serious that they are not to be attempted at the present time. (ii) The remainder can be undertaken at the present time provided that the experiment is justifiable on the basis that new knowledge or benefits to humankind will accrue that cannot readily be obtained by use of conventional methodology and that appropriate safeguards are incorporated into the design and execution of the experiment. In addition to an insistence on the practice of good microbiological techniques, these safeguards consist of providing both physical

and biological barriers to the dissemination of the potentially hazardous agents. (iii) The level of containment provided by these barriers is to match the estimated potential hazard for each of the different classes of recombinants. For projects in a given class, this level is to be highest at initiation and modified subsequently only if there is a substantiated change in the assessed risk or in the applied methodology. (iv) The guidelines will be subjected to periodic review (at least annually) and modified to reflect improvements in our knowledge of the potential biohazards and of the available safeguards.

In constructing these guidelines it has been necessary to define boundary conditions for the different levels of physical and biological containment and for the classes of experiments to which they apply. We recognize that these definitions do not take into account existing and anticipated special procedures and information that will allow particular experiments to be carried out under different conditions than indicated here without sacrifice of safety. Indeed, we urge that individual investigators devise simple and more effective containment procedures and that study sections give consideration to such procedures which may allow change in the containment levels recommended here.

It is recommended that all publications dealing with recombinant DNA work include a description of the physical and biological containment procedures practiced, to aid and forewarn others who might consider repeating the work.

II. CONTAINMENT

Effective biological safety programs have been operative in a variety of laboratories for many years. Considerable information therefore already exists for the design of physical containment facilities and the selection of laboratory procedures applicable to organisms carrying recombinant DNAs (4–17). The existing programs rely upon mechanisms that, for convenience, can be divided into two categories: (i) a set of standard practices that are generally used in microbiological laboratories, and (ii) special procedures, equipment, and laboratory installations that provide physical barriers which are applied in varying degrees according to the estimated biohazard.

Experiments on recombinant DNAs by their very nature lend themselves to a third containment mechanism—namely, the application of highly specific biological barriers. In fact, natural barriers do exist which either limit the infectivity of a vector or vehicle (plasmid, bacteriophage or virus) to specific hosts, or its dissemination and survival in the environment. The vectors that provide the means for replication of the recombinant DNAs and/or the host cells in which they replicate can be genetically designed to decrease by many orders of magnitude the probability of dissemination of recombinant DNAs outside the laboratory.

As these three means of containment are complementary, different levels of containment appropriate for experiments with different recombinants can be established by applying different combinations of the physical and biological barriers to a constant use of the standard practices. We consider these categories of containment separately here in order that such combinations can be conveniently expressed in the guidelines for research on the different kinds of recombinant DNA (Section III).

A. *Standard practices and training.* The first principle of containment is a strict adherence to good microbiological practices (4–13). Consequently, all personnel directly or indirectly involved in experiments on recombinant DNAs must receive adequate instruction. This should include at least training in aspectic techniques and instruction in the biology of the organisms used in the experiments so that the potential biohazards can be understood and appreciated.

Any research group working with agents with a known or potential biohazard should have an emergency plan which describes the procedures to be followed if an accident contaminates personnel or environment. The principal investigator must ensure that everyone in the laboratory is familiar with both the potential hazards of the work and the emergency plan. If a research group is working with a known pathogen for which an effective vaccine is available, all workers should be immunized. Serological monitoring, where appropriate, should be provided.

B. *Physical containment levels.* A variety of combinations (levels) of special practices, equipment, and laboratory installations that provide additional physical barriers can be formed. For example, 31 combinations are listed in "Laboratory Safety at the Center for Disease Control" (4); four levels are associated with the "Classification of Etiologic Agents on the Basis of Hazard" (5), four levels were recommended in the "Summary Statement of the Asilomar Conference on Recombinant DNA Molecules" (3); and the National Cancer Institute uses three levels for research on oncogenic viruses (6). We emphasize that these are an aid to, and not a substitute for, good technique. Personnel must be competent in the effective use of all equipment needed for the required containment level as described below. We define only four levels of physical containment here, both because the accuracy with which one can presently assess the biohazards that may result from recombinant DNAs does not warrant a more detailed classification, and because additional flexibility can be obtained by combination of the physical with the biological barriers. Though different in detail, these four levels (P1<P2<P3<P4) approximate those given for human etiologic agents by the Center for Disease Control (i.e., classes 1 through 4; ref. 5), in the Asilomar summary statement (i.e., minimal, low, moderate, and high; ref. 3), and by the National Cancer Institute for oncogenic viruses (i.e., low, moderate, and high; ref. 6), as is indicated by the P-number or adjective in the following headings. It should be emphasized that the descriptions and assignments of physical containment detailed below are based on existing approaches to containment of hazardous organisms.

We anticipate, and indeed already know of, procedures (14) which enhance physical containment capability in novel ways. For example, miniaturization of screening, handling, and analytical procedures provides substantial containment of a given host-vector system. Thus, such procedures should reduce the need for the standard types of physical containment, and such innovations will be considered by the Recombinant DNA Molecule Program Advisory Committee.

The special practices, equipment and facility installations indicated for each level of physical containment are required for the safety of laboratory workers, other persons, and for the protection of the environment. Optional items have been excluded; only those items deemed absolutely necessary for safety are presented. Thus, the listed requirements present basic safety criteria for each level of physical containment. Other microbiological practices and laboratory techniques which promote safety are to be encouraged. Additional information giving further guidance on physical containment is provided in a supplement to the guidelines (Appendix D).

P1 Level (Minimal). A laboratory suitable for experiments involving recombinant DNA molecules requiring physical containment at the P1 level is a laboratory that possesses no special engineering design features. It is a laboratory commonly used for microorganisms of no or minimal biohazard under ordinary conditions of handling. Work in this laboratory is generally conducted on open bench tops. Special containment equipment is neither required nor generally available in this laboratory. The laboratory is not separated from the general traffic patterns of the building. Public access is permitted.

The control of biohazards at the P1 level is provided by standard microbiological practices of which the following are examples: (i) Laboratory doors should be kept closed while experiments are in progress. (ii) Work surfaces should be decontaminated daily and following spills of recombinant DNA materials. (iii) Liquid wastes containing recombinant DNA materials should be decontaminated before disposal. (iv) Solid wastes contaminated with recombinant DNA materials should be decontaminated or packaged in a durable leakproof container before removal from the laboratory. (v) Although pipetting by mouth is permitted, it is preferable that mechanical pipetting devices be used. When pipetting by mouth, cotton-plugged pipettes shall be employed. (vi) Eating, drinking, smoking, and storage of food in the working area should be discouraged. (vii) Facilities to wash hands should be available. (viii) An insect and rodent control program should be provided. (ix) The use of laboratory gowns, coats, or uniforms is discretionary with the laboratory supervisor.

P2 Level (Low). A laboratory suitable for experiments involving recombinant DNA molecules requiring physical containment at the P2 level is similar in construction and design to the P1 laboratory. The P2 laboratory must have access to an autoclave within the building; it may have a Biological Safety Cabinet.[1] Work which does not produce a considerable aerosol is conducted on the open bench. Although this laboratory is not separated from the general traffic patterns of the building, access to the laboratory is limited when experiments requiring P2 level physical containment are being conducted. Experiments of lesser biohazard potential can be carried out concurrently in carefully demarcated areas of the same laboratory.

The P2 laboratory is commonly used for experiments involving microorganisms of low biohazard such as those which have been classified by the Center for Disease Control as Class 2 agents (5).

The following practices shall apply to all experiments requiring P2 level physical containment: (i) Laboratory doors shall be kept closed while experiments are in progress. (ii) Only persons who have been advised of the potential biohazard shall enter the laboratory. (iii) Children under 12 years of age shall not enter the laboratory. (iv) Work surfaces shall be decontaminated daily and immediately following spills of recombinant DNA materials. (v) Liquid wastes of recombinant DNA materials shall be decontaminated before disposal. (vi) Solid wastes contaminated with recombinant DNA materials shall be decontaminated or packaged in a durable leak-proof container before removal from the laboratory. Packaged materials shall be disposed of by incineration or sterilized before disposal by other methods. Contaminated materials that are to be processed and reused (i.e., glassware) shall be decontaminated before removal from the laboratory. (vii) Pipetting by mouth is prohibited; mechanical pipetting devices shall be used. (viii) Eating, drinking, smoking, and storage of food are not permitted in the working area. (ix) Facilities to wash hands shall be available within the laboratory. Persons handling recombinant DNA materials should be encouraged to wash their hands frequently and when they leave the laboratory. (x) An insect and rodent control program shall be provided. (xi) The use of laboratory gowns, coats, or uniforms is required. Such clothing shall not be worn to the lunch room or outside the building. (xii) Animals not related to the experiment shall not be permitted in the laboratory. (xiii) Biological Safety Cabinets [1] and/or other physical containment equipment shall be used to minimize the hazard of aerosolization of recombinant DNA materials from operations or devices that produce a considerable aerosol (e.g., blender, lyophilizer, sonicator, shaking machine, etc.). (xiv) Use of the hypodermic needle and syringe shall be avoided when alternate methods are available.

[1] Footnotes at end of article.

P3 Level (Moderate). A laboratory suitable for experiments involving recombinant DNA molecules requiring physical containment at the P3 level has special engineering design features and physical containment equipment. The laboratory is separated from areas which are open to the general public. Separation is generally achieved by controlled access corridors, air locks, locker rooms or other double-doored facilities which are not available for use by the general public. Access to the laboratory is controlled. Biological Safety Cabinets [1] are available within the controlled laboratory area. An autoclave shall be available within the building and preferably within the controlled laboratory area. The surfaces of walls, floors, bench tops, and ceilings are easily cleanable to facilitate housekeeping and space decontamination.

Directional air flow is provided within the controlled laboratory area. The ventilation system is balanced to provide for an inflow of supply air from the access corridor into the laboratory. The general exhaust air from the laboratory is discharged outdoors and so dispersed to the atmosphere as to prevent reentry into the building. No recirculation of the exhaust air shall be permitted without appropriate treatment.

No work in open vessels involving hosts or vectors containing recombinant DNA molecules requiring P3 physical containment is conducted on the open bench. All such procedures are confined to Biological Safety Cabinets.[1]

The following practices shall apply to all experiments requiring P3 level physical containment: (i) The universal biohazard sign is required on all laboratory access doors. Only persons whose entry into the laboratory is required on the basis of program or support needs shall be authorized to enter. Such persons shall be advised of the potential biohazards before entry and they shall comply with posted entry and exit procedures. Children under 12 years of age shall not enter the laboratory. (ii) Laboratory doors shall be kept closed while experiments are in progress. (iii) Biological Safety Cabinets [1] and other physical containment equipment shall be used for all procedures that produce aerosols of recombinant DNA materials (e.g., pipetting, plating, flaming, transfer operations, grinding, blending, drying, sonicating, shaking, etc.). (iv) The work surfaces of Biological Safety Cabinets [1] and other equipment shall be decontaminated following the completion of the experimental activity contained within them. (v) Liquid wastes containing recombinant DNA materials shall be decontaminated before disposal. Solid wastes contaminated with recombinant DNA materials shall be decontaminated or packaged in a durable leak-proof container before removal from the laboratory. Packaged material shall be sterilized before disposal. Contaminated materials that are to be processed and reused (i.e., glassware) shall be sterilized in the controlled laboratory area or placed in a durable leak-proof container before removal from the controlled laboratory area. This container shall be sterilized before the materials are processed. (vii) Pipetting by mouth is prohibited; mechanical pipetting devices shall be used. (vii) Eating drinking, smoking, and storage of food are not permitted in the laboratory. (ix) Facilities to wash hands shall be available within the laboratory. Persons shall wash hands after experiments involving recombinant DNA materials and before leaving the laboratory. (x) In insect and rodent control program shall be provided. (xi) Laboratory clothing that protects street clothing (i.e., long sleeve solid-front or wrap-around gowns, no-button or slipover jackets, etc.) shall be worn in the laboratory. FRONT-BUTTON LABORATORY COATS ARE UNSUITABLE. Gloves shall be worn when handling recombinant DNA materials. Provision for laboratory shoes is recommended. Laboratory clothing shall not be worn outside the laboratory and shall be decontaminated before it is sent to the laundry. (xii) Raincoats, overcoats, topcoats, coats, hats, caps, and such street outerwear shall not be kept in the laboratory.

(xiii) Animals and plants not related to the experiment shall not be permitted in the laboratory. (xiv) Vacuum lines shall be protected by filters and liquid traps. (xv) Use of the hypodermic needle and syringe shall be avoided when alternate methods are available. (xvi) If experiments of lesser biohazard potential are to be conducted in the same laboratory concurrently with experiments requiring P3 level physical containment they shall be conducted only in accordance with all P3 level requirements. (xvii) Experiments requiring P3 level physical containment can be conducted in laboratories where the directional air flow and general exhaust air conditions described above cannot be achieved, provided that this work is conducted in accordance with all other requirements listed and is contained in a Biological Safety Cabinet [1] with attached glove ports and gloves. All materials before removal from the Biological Safety Cabinet [1] shall be sterilized or transferred to a non-breakable, sealed container, which is then removed from the cabinet through a chemical decontamination tank, autoclave, ultraviolet air lock, or after the entire cabinet has been decontaminated.

P4 Level (High). Experiments involving recombinant DNA molecules requiring physical containment at the P4 level shall be confined to work areas in a facility of the type designed to contain microorganisms that are extremely hazardous to man or may cause serious epidemic disease. The facility is either a separate building or it is a controlled area, within a building, which is completely isolated from all other areas of the building. Access to the facility is under strict control. A specific facility operations manual is available. Class III Biological Safety Cabinets [1] are available within work areas of the facility.

A P4 facility has engineering features which are designed to prevent the escape of microorganisms to the environment (14, 15, 16, 17). These features include:

(i) Monolithic walls, floods, and ceilings in which all penetrations such as for air ducts, electrical conduits, and utility pipes are sealed to assure the physical isolation of the work area and to facilitate housekeeping and space decontamination; (ii) air locks through which supplies and materials can be brought safely into the facility; (iii) contiguous clothing change and shower rooms through which personnel enter into and exit from the facility; (iv) double-door autoclaves to sterilize and safely remove wastes and other materials from the facility; (v) a biowaste treatment system to sterilize liquid effluents if facility drains are installed; (vi) a separate ventilation system which maintains negative air pressures and directional air flow within the facility; and (vii) a treatment system to decontaminate exhaust air before it is dispersed to the atmosphere. A central vacuum utility system is not encouraged; if one is installed, each branch line leading to a laboratory shall be protected by a high efficiency particulate air filter.

The following practices shall apply to all experiments requiring P4 level physical containment: (i) The universal biohazard sign is required on all facility access doors and all interior doors to individual laboratory rooms where experiments are conducted. Only persons whose entry into the facility or individual laboratory rooms is required on the basis of program or support needs shall be authorized to enter. Such persons shall be advised of the potential biohazards and instructed as to the appropriate safeguards to ensure their safety before entry. Such persons shall comply with the instructions and all other posted entry and exit procedures. Under no condition shall children under 15 years of age be allowed entry. (ii) Personnel shall enter into and exit from the facility only through the clothing change and shower rooms. Personnel shall shower at each exit from the facility. The air locks shall not be used for personnel entry or exit except for emergencies. (iii) Street clothing shall be removed in the outer facility side of the clothing change area and kept there. Complete laboratory clothing including undergarments, pants and shirts or jumpsuits, shoes, head cover, and gloves shall be provided and used by all persons who enter into the facility. Upon exit, this clothing shall be stored in lockers provided for this purpose or discarded into collection hampers before personnel enter into the shower area. (iv) Supplies and materials to be taken into the facility shall be placed in an entry air lock. After the outer door (opening to the corridor outside of facility) has been secured, personnel occupying the facility shall retrieve the supplies and materials by opening the interior air lock door. This door shall be secured after supplies and materials are brought into the facility. (v) Doors to laboratory rooms within the facility shall be kept closed while experiments are in progress. (vi) Experimental procedures requiring P4 level physical containment shall be confined to Class III Biological Safety Cabinets.[1] All materials, before removal from these cabinets, shall be sterilized or transferred to a non-breakable sealed container, which is then removed from the system through a chemical decontaminated tank, autoclave, or after the entire system has been decontaminated.

(vii) No materials shall be removed from the facility unless they have been sterilized or decontaminatel in a manner to prevent the release of agents requiring P4 physical containment. All wastes and other materials and equipment not damaged by high temperautre or steam shall be sterilized in the double-door autoclave. Biological materials to be removed from the facility shall be transferred to a non-breakable sealed container which is then removed from the facility through a chemical decontamination tank or a chamber designed for gas sterilization. Other materials which may be damaged by temperature or steam shall be sterilized by gaseous or vapor methods in an air lock or chamber designed for this purpose. (viii) Eating, drinking, smoking, and storage of food are not permitted in the facility. Foot-operated water fountains located in the facility corridors are permitted. Separate potable water piping shall be provided for these water fountains. (ix) Facilities to wash hands shall be available within the facility. Persons shall wash hands after experiments. (x) An insect and rodent control program shall be provided. (xi) Animals and plants not related to the experiment shall not be permitted in the facility. (xii) If a central vacuum system is provided, each vacuum outlet shall be protected by a filter and liquid trap in addition to the branch line HEPA filter mentioned above. (xiii) Use of the hypodermic needle and syringe shall be avoided when alternate methods are available. (xiv) If experiments of lesser biohazard potential are to be conducted in the facility concurrently with experiments requiring P4 level containment, they shall be confined in Class I or Class II Biological Safety Cabinets [1] or isolated by other physical containment equipment. Work surfaces of Biological Safety Cabinets [1] and other equipment shall be decontaminated following the completion of the experimental activity contained within them. Mechanical pipetting devices shall be used. All other practices listed above with the exception of (vi) shall apply.

C. *Shipment.* To protect product, personnel, and the environment, all recombinant DNA material will be shipped in containers that meet the requirements issued by the U.S. Public Health Service (Section 72.25 of Part 72, Title 42, Code of Federal Regulations), Department of Transportation (Section 173.387(b) of Part 173, Title 49, Code of Federal Regulations) and the Civil Aeronautics Board (C.A.B. No. 82, Official Air Transport Restricted Articles Tariff No. 6–D) for shipment of etiologic agents. Labeling requirements specified in these Federal regulations and tariffs will apply to all viable recombinant DNA materials in which any portion of the material is derived from an etiologic agent listed in paragraph (c) of 42 CFR 72.25. Additional information on packing and shipping is given in a supplement to the guidelines (Appendix D, part X).

D. *Biological containment levels.* Biological barriers are specific to each host-vector system. Hence the criteria for this mechanism of containment cannot be generalized to the same extent as for physical containment. This is particularly true at the present time when our experience with existing host-vector systems and our predictive knowledge about projected systems are sparse. The classification of experiments with recombinant DNAs that is necessary for the construction of the experimeneal guidelines (Section III) can be accomplished with least confusion if we use the host-vector system as the primary element and the source of the inserted DNA as the secondary element in the classification. It is therefore convenient to specify the nature of the biological containment under host-vector headings such as those given below for *Escherichia coli* K–12.

III. EXPERIMENTAL GUIDELINES

A general rule that, though obvious, deserves statement is that the level of containment required for any experiment on DNA recombinants shall never be less than that required for the most hazardous component used to construct and clone the recombinant DNA (i.e., vector, host, and inserted DNA). In most cases the level of containment will be greater, particularly when the recombinant DNA is formed from species that ordinarily do not exchange genetic information. Handling the purified DNA will generally require less stringent precautions than will propagating the DNA. However, the DNA itself should be handled at least as carefully as one would handle the most dangerous of the DNAs used to make it.

The above rule by itself effectively precludes certain experiments—namely, those in which one of the components is in Class 5 of the "Classification of Etiologic Agents on the Basis of Hazard" (5), as these are excluded from the United States by law and USDA administrative policy. There are additional experiments which may engender such serious biohazards that they are not to be performed at this time. These are considered prior to presentation of the containment guidelines for permissible experiments.

A. *Experiments that are not to be performed.* We recognize that it can be argued that certain of the recombinants placed in this category could be adequately contained at this time. Nonetheless, our estimates of the possible dangers that may ensue if that containment fails are of such a magnitude that we consider it the wisest policy to at least defer experiments on these recombinant DNAs until there is more information to accurately assess that danger and to allow the construction of more effective biological barriers. In this respect, these guidelines are more stringent than those initially recommended (1).

The following experiments are not to be initiated at the present time: (i) Clon-

See footnotes at end of article.

ing of recombinant DNAs derived from the pathogenic organisms in Classes 3, 4, and 5 of "Classification of Etiologic Agents on the Basis of Hazard" (5), or oncogenic viruses classified by NCI as moderate risk (6), or cells known to be infected with such agents, regardless of the host-vector system used. (ii) Deliberate formation of recombinant DNAs containing genes for the biosynthesis of potent toxins (e.g., botulinum or diphtheria toxins; venoms from insects, snakes, etc.). (iii) Deliberate creation from plant pathogens of recombinant DNAs that are likely to increase virulence and host range. (iv) Deliberate release into the environment of any organism containing a recombinant DNA molecule. (v) Transfer of a drug resistance trait to microorganisms that are not known to acquire it naturally if such acquisition could compromise the use of a drug to control disease agents in human or veterinary medicine or agriculture.

In addition, at this time large-scale experiments (e.g., more than 10 liters of culture) with recombinant DNAs known to make harmful products are not to be carried out. We differentiate between small- and large-scale experiments with such DNAs because the probability of escape from containment barriers normally increases with increasing scale. However, specific experiments in this category that are of direct societal benefit may be excepted from this rule if special biological containment precautions and equipment designed for large-scale operations are used, and provided that these experiments are expressly approved by the Recombinant DNA Molecule Program Advisory Committee of NIH.

B. *Containment guidelines for permissible experiments.* It is anticipated that most recombinant DNA experiments initiated before these guidelines are next reviewed (i.e., within the year) will employ *E. coli* K–12 host-vector systems. These are also the systems for which we have the most experience and knowledge regarding the effectiveness of the containment provided by existing hosts and vectors necessary for the construction of more effective biological barriers.

For these reasons, *E. Coli* K–12 appears to be the system of choice at this time, although we have carefully considered arguments that many of the potential dangers are compounded by using an organism as intimately connected with a man as is *E. Coli*. Thus, while proceeding cautiously with *E. Coli*, serious efforts should be made toward developing alternate host-vector systems; this subject is discussed in considerable detail in Appendix A.

We therefore consider DNA recombinants in *E. coli* K–12 before proceeding to other host-vector systems.

1. *Biological containment criteria using E. coli K–12 host-vectors—EK1 host-vectors.* These are host-vector systems that can be estimated to already provide a moderate level of containment, and include most of the presently available systems. The host is always *E. coli* K–12, and the vectors include nonconjugative plasmids [e.g., pSC101, ColE1 or derivatives thereof (19–26)] and variants of bacteriophage λ (27–29).

The *E. coli* K–12 nonconjugative plasmid system is taken as an example to illustrate the approximate level of containment referred to here. The available data from experiments involving the feeding of bacteria to humans and calves (30–32) indicate that *E. coli* K–12 did not usually colonize the *normal* bowel, and exhibited little, if any, multiplication while passing through the alimentary tract even after feeding high doses (i.e., 10^9 to 10^{10} bacteria per human or calf). However, general extrapolation of these results may not be warranted because the implantation of bacteria into the intestinal tract depends on a number of parameters, such as the nature of the intestinal flora present in a given individual and the physiological state of the inoculum. Moreover, since viable *E. coli* K–12 can be found in the feces after humans are fed 10^7 bacteria in broth (30) or 3×10^4 bacteria protected by suspension in milk (31), transductional and conjugational transfer of the plasmid vectors from *E. coli* K–12 to resident bacteria in the fecal matter before and after excretion must also be considered.

The nonconjugative plasmid vectors cannot promote their own transfers, but require the presence of a conjugative plasmid for mobilization and transfer to other bacteria. When present in the same cell with derepressed conjugative plasmids such as F or R1*drd19*, the nonconjugative ColE1, ColE1-*trp* and pSC101 plasmids are transferred to suitable recipient strains under ideal laboratory conditions at frequencies of about 0.5, 10^{-4} to 10^{-5}, and 10^{-6} per donor cell, respectively. These frequencies are reduced by another factor of 10^2 to 10^4 if the conjugative plasmid employed is repressed with respect to expression of donor fertility.

The experimental transfer system which most closely resembles nonconjugative plasmid transfer in nature is a triparental mating. In such matings, the bacterial cell possessing the nonconjugative plasmid must first acquire a conjugative plasmid from another cell before it can transfer the nonconjugative plasmid to a secondary recipient. With ColE1, the frequencies of transfer are 10^{-2} and 10^{-4} to 10^{-5} when using conjugative plasmid donors possessing derepressed and repressed plasmids, respectively. Mobilization of ColE1-*trp* and pSC101 under similar laboratory conditions is so low as to be usually undetectable (33). Since most conjugative plasmids in nature are repressed for expression of donor fertility, the frequency at which nonconjugative plasmids are mobilized and transferred by this sequence of events *in vivo* is difficult to estimate. However, in calves fed on an antibiotic-supplemented diet, it has been estimated that such triparental nonconjugative R plasmid transfer occurs at frequencies of no more than 10^{-10} to 10^{-12} per 24 hours per calf (32). In terms of considering other means for plasmid transmission in nature, it should be noted that transduction does operate *in vivo* for *Staphylococcus aureus* (34) and probably for *E. coli* as well. However, no data are available to indicate the frequencies of plasmid transfer *in vivo* by either transduction or transformation.

These observations indicate the low probabilities for possible dissemination of such plasmid vectors by accidental ingestion, which would probably involve only a few hundred or thousand bacteria provided that at least the standard practices (Section II–A above) are followed, particularly the avoidance of mouth pipetting. The possibility of colonization and hence of transfer are increased, however, if the normal flora in the bowel is disrupted by, for example, antibiotic therapy (35). For this reason, persons receiving such therapy must not work with DNA recombinants formed with any *E. coli* K–12 host-vector system during the therapy period and for seven days thereafter; similarly, persons who have achlorhydria or who have had surgical removal of part of the stomach or bowel should avoid such work, as should those who require large doses of antacids.

The observations on the fate of *E. coli* K–12 in the human alimentary tract are also relevant to the containment of recombinant DNA formed with bacteriophage λ variants. Bacteriophage can escape from the laboratory either as mature infectious phage particles or in bacterial host cells in which the phage genome is carried as a plasmid or prophage. The fate of *E. coli* K–12 host cells carrying the phage genome as a plasmid or prophage is similar to that for plasmid-containing host cells as discussed above. The survival of the λ phage genome when released as infectious particles depends on their stability in nature, their infectivity and on the probability of subsequent encounters with naturally occurring λ-sensitive *E. coli* strains. Although the probability of survival of λ and its infection of resident intenstinal *E. coli* in animals and humans has not been measured, it is estimated to be small given the high sensitivity of λ to the low pH of the stomach, the insusceptibility to λ infection of smooth *E. coli* cells (the type that normally resides in the gut), the infrequency of naturally occurring λ-sensitive *E. coli* (36) and the failure to detect infective λ particles in human feces after ingestion of up to 10^{11} λ particles (37). Moreover, λ particles are very sensitive to desiccation.

Establishment of λ as a stable lysogen is a frequent event (10^0 to 10^{-3}) for the *att*$^+$ *int*$^+$ *cI*$^+$ phage so that this mode of escape would be the preponderant laboratory hazard; however, most EK1 λ vectors currently in use lack the *att* and *int* functions (27–29) thus reducing the probability of lysogenization to about 10^{-5} to 10^{-6} (38–40). The frequency for the conversion of λ to a plasmid state for persistence and replication is also only about 10^{-6} (41). Moreover, the routine treatment of phage lysates with chloroform (42) should eliminate all surviving bacteria including lysogens and λ plasmid carriers. Lysogenization could also occur

when an infectious λ containing cloned DNA infects a λ-sensitive cell in nature, and recombines with a resident lambdoid prophage. Although λ-sensitive *E. coli* strains seem to be rare, a significant fraction do carry lambdoid prophages (43–44) and thus this route of escape should be considered.

While not exact, the estimates for containment afforded by using these host-vectors are at least as accurate as those for physical containment, and are sufficient to indicate that currently employed plasmid and λ vector systems provide a moderate level of biological containment. Other nonconjugative plasmids and bacteriophages that, in association with *E. coli* K–12 can be estimated to provide the same approximate level of moderate containment are included in the EK1 class.

EK2 host-vectors. These are host-vector systems that have been genetically constructed and shown to provide a high level of biological containment as demonstrated by data from suitable tests performed in the laboratory. The genetic modifications of the *E. coli* K–12 host and/or the plasmid or phage vector should not permit survival of a genetic marker carried on the vector, preferably a marker within an inserted DNA fragment, in other than specially designed and carefully regulated laboratory environments at a frequency greater than 10^{-8}. This measure of biological containment has been selected because it is a measurable entity. Indeed, by testing the contributions of preexisting and newly introduced genetic properties of vectors and hosts, individually or in various combinations, it should be possible to estimate with considerable precision, that the specially designed host-vector system can provide a margin of biological containment in excess of that required. For the time being, no host-vector system will be considered to be a bona fide EK2 host-vector system until it is so certified by the NIH Recombinant DNA Molecule Program Advisory Committee.

For EK2 host-vector systems in which the vector is a plasmid, no more than one in 10^8 host cells should be able to perpetuate the vector and/or a cloned DNA fragment under non-permissive conditions designed to represent the natural environment either by survival of the original host or as a consequence of transmission of the vector and/or a cloned DNA fragment by transformation, transduction or conjugation to a host with properties common to those in the natural environment.

In terms of potential EK2 plasmid-host systems, the following types of genetic modifications should reduce survival of cloned DNA. *The examples given are for illustrative purposes and should not be construed to encompass all possibilities.* The presence of the non-conjugative plasmids ColE1-*trp* and pS101 in an *E. coli* K–12 strain possessing a mutation eliminating host-controlled restriction and modification (*hsdS*) results in about 10^2-fold reduction in mobilization to restriction-proficient recipients. The combination of the *dapD8*, *ΔbioH-asd*, *Δgal-chl*^{r} and *rfb* mutations in *E. coli* K–12 results in no detectable survivors in feces of rats following feeding by stomach tube of 10^{10} cells in milk and similarly leads to complete lysis of cells suspended in broth medium lacking diaminopimelic acid. *E. coli* K–12 strains with *ΔthyA* and *deoC* (*dra*) mutations undergo thymineless death in growth medium lacking thymine and give a 10^5-fold reduced survival during passage through the rat intestine compared to wild-type *thy*$^+$ *E. coli* K–12. (However, the *ΔthyA* mutation alone or in combination with a *deoB*(*drm*) mutation only reduces *in vivo* survival by a factor of 10^2.) Other host mutations, as yet untested, that might further reduce survival of the plasmid-host system or reduce plasmid transmission are: the combination *polA*(TS) *recA*(TS) *ΔthyA* which might interfere with ColE1 replication and lead to DNA degradation at body temperatures; Con$^-$ mutations that reduce the ability of conjugative plasmids to enter the plasmid-host complex and thus should reduce mobilization of the cloned DNA to other strains; and mutations that confer resistance to known transducing phages. Mutations can also be introduced into the plasmid to cause it to be dependent on a specific host, to make its replication thermosensitive and/or to endow it with a killer capability such that all cells (other than its host) into which it might be transferred will not survive.

In the construction of EK2 plasmid-host systems it is important to use the most stable mutations available, preferably deletions. Obviously, the presence of all mutations contributing to higher degrees of biological containment must be verified periodically by appropriate tests. In testing the level of biological containment afforded by a proposed EK2 plasmid-host system, it is important to design relevant tests to evaluate the survival of the vector and/or a cloned DNA fragment under conditions that are possible in nature and that are also most advantageous for its perpetuation. For example, one might conduct a triparental mating with a primary donor possessing a derepressed F-type or I-type conjugative plasmid, the safer host with *ΔbioH-asd*, *dapD8*, *Δgal-chl*^{r}, *rfb*, *ΔthyA*, *deoC*, *trp* and *hsdS* mutations and a plasmid vector carrying an easily detectable marker such as for ampicillin resistance or an inserted gene such as *trp*$^+$, and a secondary recipient that is Su$^+$ *hsdS trp* (i.e., permissive for the recombinant plasmid). Such matings would be conducted in a medium lacking diaminopimelic acid and thymine and survival of the Ap^r or *trp*$^+$ marker in any of the three strains followed as a function of time. Survival of the vector and/or a cloned marker by transduction could also be evaluated by introducing a known generalized transducing phage into the system. Similar experiments should also be done using a secondary recipient that is restrictive for the plasmid vector as well as with primary donors possessing repressed conjugative plasmids with incompatibility group properties like those commonly found in enteric microorganisms. Since a common route of escape of plasmid-host systems in the laboratory might be by accidental ingestion, it is suggested that the same types of experiments be conducted in suitable animal-model systems. In addition to these tests on survival of the vector and/or a cloned DNA fragment, it would be useful to determine the survival of the host strain under nongrowth conditions such as in water and as a function of drying time after a culture has been spilled on a lab bench.

For EK2 host-vector systems in which the vector is a phage, no more than one in 10^8 phage particles should be able to perpetuate itself and/or a cloned DNA fragment under non-permissive conditions designed to represent the natural environment either (a) as a prophage or plasmid in the laboratory host used for phage propagation or (b) by surviving in natural environments and transferring itself and/or a cloned DNA fragment to a host (or its resident lamboid prophage) with properties common to those in the natural environment.

In terms of potential EK2 λ-host systems, the following types of genetic modification should reduce survival of cloned DNA. *The examples given are for illustrative purposes and should not be construed to encompass all possibilities.* The probability of establishing λ lysogeny in the normal laboratory host should be reduced by removal of the phage *att* site, the Int function, the repressor gene(s) and adding virulence-enhancing mutations. The frequency of plasmid formation, although normally already less than 10^{-6}, could be further reduced by defects in the p_R-*Q* region, including mutations such as *vir-s*, *cro*(TS), *c*^{17}, *ri*^{s}, *O*(TS), *P*(TS), and *nin*. Moreover, chloroform treatment used routinely following cell lysis would reduce the number of surviving cells, including possible lysogens or plasmid carriers, by more than 10^8. The host may also be modified by deletion of the host λ*att* site and inclusion of one or more of the mutations described above for plasmid-host systems to further reduce the chance of formation and survival of any lysogen or plasmid carrier cell.

The survival of escaping phage and the chance of encountering a sensitive host in nature are very low, as discussed for EK1 systems. The infectivity of the phage particles could be further reduced by introducing mutations (e.g., suppressed ambers) which would make the phage particles extremely unstable except under special laboratory conditions (e.g., high concentrations of salts or putrescine). Another means would be to make the phage itself a two-component system, by eliminating the tail genes and reproducing the phage as heads packed with DNA; when necessary and under specially controlled conditions, these heads could be made infective by adding tail preparations. An additional safety factor in this regimen is the extreme instability of the heads, unless they are stored in 10mM putrescine, a condition easy to obtain in the laboratory but not in nature. The propagation of the es-

caping phage in nature could further be blocked by adding various conditional mutations which would permit growth only under special laboratory conditions or in a special permissive laboratory host with suppressor or *gro*-type (*mop, dnaB, rpoB*) mutations. An additional safety feature would be the use of an r^-m^- (*hsdS*) laboratory host, which produces phage with unmodified DNA which should be restricted in r^+m^+ bacteria that are probably prevalent in nature. The likelihood of recombination between the λ vector and lambdoid prophages which are present in some *E. coli* strains might be reduced by elimination of the Red function and the presence of the recombination-reducing Gam function together with mutations contributing to the high lethality of the λ phage. However, these second-order precautions might not be relevant if the stability and infectivity of the escaping λ particles are reduced by special mutations or by propagating the highly unstable heads.

Despite multiple mutations in the phage vectors and laboratory hosts, the yield of phage particles under suitable laboratory conditions should be high (10^{10}-10^{11} particles/ml). This permits phage propagation in relatively small volumes and constitutes an additional safety feature.

The phenotypes and genetic stabilities of the mutations and chromosome alterations included in these λ-host systems indicate that containment well in excess of the required 10^{-8} or lower survival frequency for the λ vector with or without a cloned DNA fragment should be attained. Obviously the presence of all mutations contributing to this high degree of biological containment must be verified periodically by appropriate tests. Laboratory tests should be performed with the bacterial host to measure all possible routes of escape such as the frequency of lysogen formation, the frequency of plasmid formation and the survival of the lysogen or carrier bacterium. Similarly, the potential for perpetuation of a cloned DNA fragment carried by infectious phage particles can be tested by challenging typical wild-type *E. coli* strains or a λ-sensitive nonpermissive laboratory K-12 strain, especially one lysogenic for a lambdoid phage.

In view of the fact that accurate assessment of the probabilities for escape of infections λ-grown on r^- m^- Su^+ hosts is dependent upon the frequencies of r^-, Su^+, and λ-sensitive strains in nature, investigators need to screen *E. coli* strains for these properties. These data will also be useful in predicting frequencies of successful escape of plasmid cloning vectors harbored in r^- m^- Su^+ strains.

When any investigator has obtained data on the level of containment provided by a proposed EK2 system, these should be reported as rapidly as possible to permit general awareness and evaluation of the safety features of the new system. Investigators are also encouraged to make such new safer cloning systems generally available to other scientists. NIH will take appropriate steps to aid in the distribution of these safer vectors and hosts.

EK3 host-vectors. These are EK2 systems for which the specified containment shown by laboratory tests has been independently confirmed by appropriate tests in animals, including humans or primates, and in other relevant environments in order to provide additional data to validate the levels of containment afforded by the EK2 host-vector systems. Evaluation of the effects of individual or combinations of mutations contributing to the biological containment should be performed as a means to confirm the degree of safety provided and to further advance the technology of developing even safer vectors and hosts. For the time being, no host-vector system will be considered to be a bona fide EK3 host-vector system, until it is so certified by the NIH Recombinant DNA Molecule Program Advisory Committee.

2. *Classification of experiments using the E. coli K-12 containment systems.* In the following classification of containment criteria for different kinds of recombinant DNAs, the stated levels of physical and biological containment are minimums. Higher levels of biological containment (EK3 > EK2 > EK1) are to be used if they are available and are equally appropriate for the purposes of the experiment.

(*a*) *Shotgun Experiments.* These experiments involve the production of recombinant DNAs between the vector and the total DNA or (preferably) any partially purified fraction thereof from the specified cellular source.

(i) *Eukaryotic DNA recombinants—Primates.* P3 physical containment + an EK3 host-vector, or P4 physical containment + an EK2 host-vector, except for DNA from uncontaminated embryonic tissue or primary tissue cultures therefrom, and germ-line cells for which P3 physical containment + an EK2 host-vector can be used. The basis for the lower estimated hazard in the case of DNA from the latter tissues (if freed of adult tissue) is their relative freedom from horizontally acquired adventitious viruses.

Other mammals. P3 physical containment + an EK2 host-vector.

Birds. P3 physical containment + an EK2 host-vector.

Cold-blooded vertebrates. P2 physical containment + an EK2 host-vector except for embryonic or germ-line DNA which require P2 physical containment + an EK1 host-vector. If the eukaryote is known to produce a potent toxin, the containment shall be increased to P3 + EK2.

Other cold-blooded animals and lower eukaryotes. This large class of eukaryotes is divided into the following two groups:

(*1*) Species that are known to produce a potent toxin or are known pathogens (i.e., an agent listed in Class 2 of ref. 5 or a plant pathogen) or are known to carry such pathogenic agents must use P3 physical containment + an EK2 host-vector. Any species that has a demonstrated capacity for carrying particular pathogenic agents is included in this group unless it has been shown that those organisms used as the source of DNA do not contain these agents; in this case they may be placed in the second group.

(*2*) The remainder of the species in this class can use P2 + EK1. However, any insect in this group should have been grown under laboratory conditions for at least 10 generations prior to its use as a source of DNA.

Plants. P2 physical containment + an EK1 host-vector. If the plant carries a known pathogenic agent or makes a product known to be dangerous to any species, the containment must be raised to P3 physical containment + an EK2 host-vector.

(ii) *Prokaryotic DNA recombinants—Prokaryotes that exchange genetic information with E. coli.*[4] The level of physical containment is directly determined by the rule of the most dangerous component (see introduction to Section III). Thus P1 conditions can be used for DNAs from those bacteria in Class 1 of ref. 5 ("Agents of no or minimal hazard ***.") which naturally exchange genes with *E. coli;* and P2 conditions should be used for such bacteria if they fall in Class 2 of ref. 5 ("Agents of ordinary potential hazard * * *."), or are plant pathogens or symbionts. EK1 host-vectors can be used for all experiments requiring only P1 physical containment; in fact, experiments in this category can be performed with *E. coli* K-12 vectors exhibiting a lesser containment (e.g., conjugative plasmids) than EK1 vectors. Experiments with DNA from species requiring P2 physical containment which are of low pathogenicity (for example, enteropathogenic *Escherichia coli, Salmonella typhimurium,* and *Klebsiella pneumoniae*) can use EK1 host-vectors, but those of moderate pathogenicity (for example, *Salmonella typhi, Shigella dysenteriae* type I, and *Vibrio cholerae*) must use EK2 host-vectors.[3] A specific example of an experiment with a plant pathogen requiring P2 physical containment + an EK2 host-vector would be cloning the tumor gene of *Agrobacterium tumefaciens.*

Prokaryotes that do not exchange genetic information with E. coli. The minimum containment conditions for this class consist of P2 physical containment + an EK2 host-vector or P3 physical containment + an EK1 host-vector, and apply when the risk that the recombinant DNAs will increase the pathogenicity or ecological potential of the host is judged to be minimal. Experiments with DNAs from pathogenic species (Class 2 ref. 5 plus plant pathogens) must use P3 + EK2.

(iii) *Characterized clones of DNA recombinants derived from shotgun experiments.* When a cloned DNA recombinant has been rigorously characterized[4] and there is sufficient evidence that it is free of harmful genes,[4] then experiments involving this recombinant DNA can be carried out under P1 + EK1 conditions if the inserted DNA is from a

See footnotes at end of article.

species that exchanges genes with *E. coli*, and under P2 + EK1 conditions if not.

(*b*) *Purified cellular DNAs other than plasmids, bacteriophages, and other viruses.* The formation of DNA recombinants from cellular DNAs that have been enriched [5] by physical and chemical techniques (i.e., not by cloning) and which are free of harmful genes can be carried out under lower containment conditions than used for the corresponding shotgun experiment. In general, the containment can be decreased one step in physical containment (P4→P3→P2→P1) while maintaining the biological containment specified for the shotgun experiment, or one step in biological containment (EK3→EK2→EK1) while maintaining the specified physical containment—provided that the new condition is not less than that specified above for characterized clones from shotgun experiments (Section (*a*)—iii).

(*c*) *Plasmids, basteriophages, and other viruses.* Recombinants formed between EK-type vectors and other plasmid or virus DNAs have in common the potential for acting as double vectors because of the replication functions in these DNAs. The containment conditions given below apply only to propagation of the DNA recombinants in *E. coli* K-12 hosts. They do not apply to other hosts where they may be able to replicate as a result of functions provided by the DNA inserted into the EK vectors. These are considered under other host-vector systems.

(i) *Animal viruses.* P4+EK2 or P3EK3 shall be used to isolate DNA recombinants that include *all or part* of the genome of an animal virus. This recommendation applies not only to experiments of the "shotgun" type but also to those involving partially characterized subgenomic segments of viral DNAs (for example, the genome of defective viruses, DNA fragments isolated after treatment of viral genomes with restriction enzymes, etc). When cloned recombinants have been shown by suitable biochemical and biological tests to be free of harmful regions, they can be handled in P3+EK2 conditions. In the case of DNA viruses, harmless regions include the late region of the genome; in the case of DNA copies of RNA viruses, they might include the genes coding for capsid proteins or envelope proteins.

(ii) *Plant viruses.* P3+EK1 or P2+EK2 conditions shall be used to form DNA recombinants that include *all or part* of the genome of a plant virus.

(iii) *Eukaryotic organelle DNAs.* The containment conditions given below apply only when the organelle DNA has been purified [6] from isolated organelles. Mitochondrial DNA from primates: P3+EK1 or P2+EK2. Mitochondrial or chloroplast DNA from other eukaryotes: P2+EK1. Otherwise, the conditions given under shotgun experiments apply.

(iv) *Prokaryotic plasmid and phage DNAs—Plasmids and phage from hosts that exchange genetic information with E. coli.* Experiments with DNA recombinants formed from plasmids or phage genomes that have not been characterized with regard to presence of harmful genes or are known to contribute significantly to the pathogenicity of their normal hosts must use the containment conditions specified for shotgun experiments with DNAs from the respective host. If the DNA recombinants are formed from plasmids or phage that are known not to contain harmful genes, or from purified [6] and characterized plasmid or phage DNA segments known not to contain harmful genes, the experiments can be performed with P1 physical containment + an EK1 host-vector.

Plasmids and phage from hosts that do not exchange genetic information with E. coli. The rules for shotgun experiments with DNA from the host apply to their plasmids or phages. The minimum containment conditions for this category (P2+EK2, or P3+EK1) can be used for plasmid and phage, or for purified [6] and characterized segments of plasmid and phage DNAs, when the risk that the recombinant DNAs will increase the pathogenicity or ecological potential of the host is judged to be minimal.

NOTE.—Where applicable, cDNAs(i.e., complementary DNAs) synthesized *in vitro* from cellular or viral RNAs are included within each of the above classifications. For example, cDNAs formed from cellular RNAs that are not purified and characterized are included under (*a*), shotgun experiments; cDNAs formed from purified and characterized RNAs are included under (*b*); cDNAs formed from viral RNAs are included under (*c*); etc.

3. *Experiments with other prokaryotic host-vectors.* Other prokaryotic host-vector systems are at the speculative, planning, or developmental stage, and consequently do not warrant detailed treatment here at this time. However, the containment criteria for different types of DNA recombinants formed with *E. coli* K–12 host-vectors can, with the aid of some general principles given here, serve as a guide for containment conditions with other host-vectors when appropriate adjustment is made for their different habitats and characteristics. The newly developed host-vector systems should offer some distinct advantage over the *E. coil* K–12 host-vectors—for instance, thermophilic organisms or other host-vectors whose major habitats do not include humans and/or economically important animals and plants. In general, the strain of any prokaryotic species used as the host is to conform to the definition of Class 1 etiologic agents given in ref. 5 (i.e., "Agents of no or minimal hazard. * * *."), and the plasmid or phage vector should not make the host more hazardous. Appendix A gives a detailed discussion of the *B. subtilis* system, the most promising alternative to date.

At the initial stage, the host-vector must exhibit at least a moderate level of biological containment comparable to EK1 systems, and should be capable of modification to obtain high levels of containment comparable to EK2 and EK3. The type of confirmation test(s) required to move a host-vector from an EK2-type classification to an EK3-type will clearly depend upon the preponderant habitat of the host-vector. For example, if the unmodified host-vector propagates mostly in, on, or around higher plants, but not appreciably in warm-blooded animals, modification should be designed to reduce the probability that the host-vector can escape to and propagate in, on, or around such plants, or transmit recombinant DNA to other bacterial hosts that are able to occupy these ecological niches, and it is these lower probabilities which must be confirmed. The following principles are to be followed in using the containment criteria given for experiments with *E. coli* K–12 host-vectors as a guide for other prokaryotic systems. Experiments with DNA from prokaryotes (and their plasmids or viruses) are classified according to whether the prokaryote in question exchanges genetic information with the host-vector or not, and the containment conditions given for these two classes with *E. coli* K–12 host-vectors applied. Experiments with recombinants between plasmid or phage vectors and DNA that extends the range of resistance of the recipient species to therapeutically useful drugs must use P3 physical containment + a host-vector comparable to EK1 or P2 physical containment + a host-vector comparable to EK2. Transfer of recombinant DNA to plant pathogens can be made safer by using nonreverting, doubly auxothrophic, non-pathogenic variants. Experiments using a plant pathogen that affects an element of the local flora will require more stringent containment than if carried out in areas where the host plant is not common.

Experiments with DNAs from eukaryotes (and their plasmids or viruses) can also follow the criteria for the corresponding experiments with *E. coli* K–12 vectors if the major habitats of the given host-vector overlap those of *E. coli*. If the host-vector has a major habitat that does not overlap those of *E. coli* (e.g., root nodules in plants), then the containment conditions for some eukaryotic recombinant DNAs need to be increased (for instance, higher plants and their viruses in the preceding example), while others can be reduced.

4. *Experiments with eukaryotic host-vectors—(a) Animal host-vector systems.* Because host cell lines generally have little if any capacity for propagation outside the laboratory, the primary focus for containment is the vector, although cells should also be derived from cultures expected to be of minimal hazard. Given good microbiological practices, the most likely mode escape of recombinant DNAs from a physically contained laboratory is carriage by humans; thus vectors should be chosen that have little or no ability to replicate in human cells. To be used as a vector in a eukaryotic host, a DNA molecule needs to display all of the following properties:

(1) It shall not consist of the whole genome of any agent that is infectious for humans or that replicates to a significant extent in human cells in tissue culture.

(2) Its functional anatomy should be known—that is, there should be a clear

See footnotes at end of article.

idea of the location within the molecule of:

(a) The sites at which DNA synthesis originates and terminates,

(b) The sites that are cleaved by restriction endonucleases,

(c) The template regions for the major gene products.

(3) It should be well studied genetically. It is desirable that mutants be available in adequate number and variety, and that quantitative studies of recombination have been performed.

(4) The recombinant must be defective, that is, its propagation as a virus is dependent upon the presence of a complementing helper genome. This helper should either (a) be integrated into the genome of a stable line of host cells (a situation that would effectively limit the growth of the vector to that particular cell line) or (b) consist of a defective genome or an appropriate conditional lethal mutant virus (in which case the experiments would be done under non-permissive conditions), making vector and helper dependent upon each other for propagation. However, if none of these is available, the use of a non-defective genome as helper would be acceptable.

Currently only two viral DNAs can be considered as meeting these requirements: these are the genomes of polyoma virus and SV40.

Of these, polyoma virus is highly to be preferred. SV40 is known to propagate in human cells, both *in vivo* and *in vitro*, and to infect laboratory personnel, as evidenced by the frequency of their conversion to producing SV40 antibodies. Also, SV40 and related viruses have been found in association with certain human neurological and malignant diseases. SV40 shares many properties, and gives complementation, with the common human papova viruses. By contrast, there is no evidence that polyoma infects humans, nor does it replicate to any significant extent in human cells *in vitro*. However, this system still needs to be studied more extensively. Appendix B gives further details and documentation.

Taking account of all these factors:

(1) *Polyoma Virus.* (*a*) Recombinant DNA molecules consisting of defective polyoma virus genomes plus DNA sequences of any nonpathogenic organism, including Class 1 viruses (5), can be propagated in or used to transform cultured cells. P3 conditions are required. Appropriate helper virus can be used if needed. Whenever there is a choice, it is urged that mouse cells, derived preferably from embryos, be used as the source of eukaryotic DNA. Polyoma virus is a mouse virus and recombinant DNA molecues containing both viral and cellular sequences are already known to be present in virus stocks grown at a high multiplicity. Thus, recombinants formed *in vitro* between polyoma virus DNA and mouse DNA are presumably not novel from an evolutionary point of view.

(*b*) Such experiments are to be done under P4 conditions if the recombinant DNA contains segments of the genomes of Class 2 animal viruses (5). Once it has been shown by suitable biochemical and biological tests that the cloned recombinant contains only harmless regions of the viral genome (see Section IIIB–2–c–i) and that the host range of the polyoma virus vector has not been altered, experiments can be continued under P3 conditions.

(2) *SV40 Virus.*

(*a*) Defective SV40 genomes, with appropriate helper, can be used as a vector for recombinant DNA molecules containing sequences of any non-pathogenic organism or Class I virus (5), (i.e., a shotgun type experiment). P4 conditions are required. Established lines of cultured cells should be used.

(*b*) Such experiments are to be carried out in P3 (or P4) conditions if the non-SV40 DNA segment is (a) a purified[*] segment of prokaryotic DNA lacking toxigenic genes, or (b) a segment of eukaryotic DNA whose function has been established, which does not code for a toxic product, and which has been previously cloned in a prokaryotic host-vector system. It shall be confirmed that the defective virus-helper virus system does not replicate significantly more efficiently in human cells in tissue culture than does SV40, following infection at a multiplicity of infection of one or more helper SV40 viruses per cell.

(*c*) A recombinant DNA molecule consisting of defective SV40 DNA lacking substantial segments of the late region, plus DNA from non-pathogenic organisms or Class I viruses (5), can be propagated as an autonomous cellular element in established lines of cells under P3 conditions provided that there is no exogenous or endogenous helper, and that it is demonstrated that *no* infectious virus particles are being produced. Until this has been demonstrated, the appropriate containment conditions specified in *2. a.* and *2. b.* shall be used.

(*d*) Recombinant DNA molecules consisting of defective SV40 DNA and sequences from non-pathogenic prokaryotic or eukaryotic organisms or Class I viruses (5) can be used to transform established lines of non-permissive cells under P3 conditions. It must be demonstrated that no infectious virus particles are being produced; rescue of SV40 from such transformed cells by co-cultivation or transfection techniques must be carried out in P4 conditions.

(3) Efforts are to be made to ensure that all cell lines are free of virus particles and mycoplasma.

Since SV40 and polyoma are limited in their scope to act as vectors, chiefly because the amount of foreign DNA that the normal virions can carry probably cannot exceed 2×10^{6} daltons, the development of systems in which recombinants can be cloned and propagated purely in the form of DNA, rather than in the coats of infectious agents is necessary. Plasmid forms of viral genomes or organelle DNA need to be explored as possible cloning vehicles in eukaryotic cells.

(*b*) *Plant host-vector systems.* For cells in tissue cultures, seedlings, or plant parts (e.g. tubers, stems, fruits, and detached leaves) or whole mature plants of small species (e.g., *Arabidopsis*) the P1–P4 containment conditions that we have specified previously are relevant concepts. However, work with most plants poses additional problems. The greenhouse facilities accompanying P2 laboratory physical containment conditions can be provided by: (i) Insect-proof greenhouses, (ii) appropriate sterilization of contaminated plants, pots, soil, and runoff water, and (iii) adoption of the other standard practices for microbiological work. P3 physical containment can be sufficiently approximated by confining the operations with whole plants to growth chambers like those used for work with radioactive isotopes, provided that (i) such chambers are modified to produce a negative pressure environment with the exhaust air appropriately filtered, (ii) that other operations with infectious materials are carried out under the specified P3 conditions, and (iii) to guard against inadvertent insect transmission of recombinant DNA, growth chambers are to be routinely fumigated and only used in insect proof rooms. The P2 and P3 conditions specified earlier are therefore extended to include these cases for work on higher plants.

The host cells for experiments on recombinants DNAs may be cells in culture, in seedling or plant parts. Whole plants or plant parts that cannot be adequately contained shall not be used as hosts for shotgun experiments at this time, and attempts to infect whole plants with recombinant DNA shall not be initiated until the effects on host cells in culture, seedlings or plant parts have been thoroughly studied.

Organelle or plasmid DNAs or DNAs of viruses of restricted host range may be used as vectors. In general, similar criteria for selecting host-vectors to those given in the preceding section on animal systems are to apply to plant systems.

DNA recombinants formed between the initial moderately contained vectors and DNA form cells of species in which the vector DNA can replicate, require P2 physical containment. However, if the source of the DNA is itself pathogenic or known to carry pathogenic agents, or to produce products dangerous to plants, or if the vector is an unmodified virus of unrestricted host range, the experiments shall be carried out under P3 conditions.

Experiments on recombinant DNAs formed between the above vectors and DNAs from other species can also be carried out under P2 if that DNA has been purified[*] and determined not to contain harmful genes. Otherwise, the experiments shall be carried out under P3 conditions if the source of the inserted DNA is not itself a pathogen, or known to carry such pathogenic agents, or to produce harmful products—and under P4 conditions if these conditions are not met.

The development and use of host-vector systems that exhibit a high level of biological containment permit a decrease or one step in the physical con-

See footnotes at end of article.

tainment specified above (P4→P3→P2→P1).

(c) *Fungal or similar lower eukaryotic host-vector systems.* The containment criteria for experiments on recombinant DNAs using these host-vectors most closely resemble those for prokaryotes, rather than those for the preceding eukaryotes, in that the host cells usually exhibit a capacity for dissemination outside the laboratory that is similar to that for bacteria. We therefore consider that the containment guidelines given for experiments with *E. coli* K–12 and other prokaryotic host-vectors (Sections IIIB–1 and –2, respectively) provide adequate direction for experiments with these lower eukaryotic host-vectors. This is particularly true at this time since the development of these host-vectors is presently in the speculative stage.

IV. ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES

Safety in research involving recombinant DNA molecules depends upon how the research team applies these guidelines. Motivation and critical judgment are necessary, in addition to specific safety knowledge, to ensure protection of personnel, the public, and the environment.

The guidelines given here are to help the principal investigator determine the nature of the safeguards that should be implemented. These guidelines will be incomplete in some respects because all conceivable experiments with recombinant DNAs cannot now be anticipated. Therefore, they cannot substitute for the investigator's own knowledgeable and discriminating evaluation. Whenever this evaluation calls for an increase in containment over that indicated in the guidelines, the investigator has a responsibility to institute such an increase. In contrast, the containment conditions called for in the guidelines should not be decreased without review and approval at the institutional and NIH levels.

The following roles and responsibilities define an administrative framework in which safety is an essential and integrated function of research involving recombinant DNA molecules.

A. *Principal Investigator.* The principal investigator has the primary responsibility for: (i) Determining the real and potential biohazards of the proposed research, (ii) determining the appropriate level of biological and physical containment, (iii) selecting the microbiological practices and laboratory techniques for handling recombinant DNA materials, (iv) preparing procedures for dealing with accidental spills and overt personnel contamination, (v) determining the applicability of various precautionary medical practices, serological monitoring, and immunization, when available, (vi) securing approval of the proposed research prior to initiation of work, (vii) submitting information on purported EK2 and EK3 systems to the NIH Recombinant DNA Molecule Program Advisory Committee and making the strains available to others, (viii) reporting to the institutional biohazards committee and the NIH Office of Recombinant DNA Activities new information bearing on the guidelines, such as technical information relating to hazards and new safety procedures or innovations, (ix) applying for approval from the NIH Recombinant DNA Molecule Program Advisory Committee for large scale experiments with recombinant DNAs known to make harmful products (i.e., more than 10 liters of culture), and (x) applying to NIH for approval to lower containment levels when a cloned DNA recombinant derived from a shotgun experiment has been rigorously characterized and there is sufficient evidence that it is free of harmful genes.

Before work is begun, the principal investigator is responsible for: (1) Making available to program and support staff copies of those portions of the approved grant application that describe the biohazards and the precautions to be taken, (ii) advising the program and support staff of the nature and assessment of the real and potential biohazards, (iii) instructing and training this staff in the practices and techniques required to ensure safety, and in the procedures for dealing with accidentally created biohazards, and (iv) informing the staff of the reasons and provisions for any advised or requested precautionary medical practices, vaccinations, or serum collection.

During the conduct of the research, the principal investigator is responsible for: (i) Supervising the safety performance of the staff to ensure that the required safety practices and techniques are employed, (ii) investigating and reporting in writing to the NIH Office of Recombinant DNA Activities and the institutional biohazards committee any serious or extended illness of a worker or any accident that results in (a) inoculation of recombinant DNA materials through cutaneous penetration, (b) ingestion of recombinant DNA materials, (c) probable inhalation of recombinant DNA materials following gross aerosolization, or (d) any incident causing serious exposure to personnel or danger of environmental contamination, (iii) investigating and reporting in writing to the NIH Office of Recombinant DNA Activities and the institutional biohazards committee any problems pertaining to operation and implementation of biological and physical containment safety practices and procedures, or equipment or facility failure, (iv) correcting work errors and conditions that may result in the release of recombinant DNA materials, and (v) ensuring the integrity of the physical containment (e.g., biological safety cabinets) and the biological containment (e.g., genotypic and phenotypic characteristics, purity, etc.).

B. *Institution.* Since in almost all cases, NIH grants are made to institutions rather than to individuals, all the responsibilities of the principal investigator listed above are the responsibilities of the institution under the grant, fulfilled on its behalf by the principal investigator. In addition, the institution is responsible for establishing an institutional biohazards committee[7] to: (i) Advise the institution on policies, (ii) create and maintain a central reference file and library of catalogs, books, articles, newsletters, and other communications as a source of advice and reference regarding, for example, the availability and quality of the safety equipment, the availability and level of biological containment for various host-vector systems, suitable training of personnel and data on the potential biohazards associated with certain recombinant DNAs, (iii) develop a safety and operations manual for any P4 facility maintained by the institution and used in support of recombinant DNA research, (iv) certify to the NIH on applications for research support and annually thereafter, that facilities, procedures, and practices and the training and expertise of the personnel involved have been reviewed and approved by the institutional biohazards committee.

The biohazards committee must be sufficiently qualified through the experience and expertise of its membership and the diversity of its membership to ensure respect for its advice and counsel. Its membership should include individuals from the institution or consultants, selected so as to provide a diversity of disciplines relevant to recombinant DNA technology, biological safety, and engineering. In addition to possessing the professional competence necessary to assess and review specific activities and facilities, the committee should possess or have available to it, the competence to determine the acceptability of its findings in terms of applicable laws, regulations, standards of practices, community attitudes, and health and environmental considerations. Minutes of the meetings should be kept and made available for public inspection. The institution is responsible for reporting names of and relevant background information on the members of its biohazards committee to the NIH.

C. *NIH Initial Review Groups (Study Sections).* The NIH Study Sections, in addition to reviewing the scientific merit of each grant application involving recombinant DNA molecules, are responsible for: (i) Making an independent evaluation of the real and potential biohazards of the proposed research on the basis of these guidelines, (ii) determining whether the proposed physical containment safeguards certified by the institutional biohazards committee are appropriate for control of these biohazards, (iii) determining whether the proposed biological containment safeguards are appropriate, (iv) referring to the NIH Recombinant DNA Molecule Program Advisory Committee or the NIH Office of Recombinant DNA Activities those problems pertaining to assessment of biohazards or safeguard determination that cannot be resolved by the Study Sections.

The membership of the Study Sections will be selected in the usual manner. Biological safety expertise, however, will be available to the Study Sections for consultation and guidance.

D. *NIH Recombinant DNA Molecule Program Advisory Committee.* The Recombinant DNA Molecule Program Advisory Committee advises the Secretary, Department of Health, Education, and

See footnotes at end of article.

Welfare, the Assistant Secretary for Health, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, and the Director, National Institutes of Health, on a program for the evaluation of potential biological and ecological hazards of recombinant DNAs (molecules resulting from different segments of DNA that have been joined together in cell-free systems, and which have the capacity to infect and replicate in some host cell, either autonomously or as an integrated part of their host's genome), on the development of procedures which are designed to prevent the spread of such molecules within human and other populations, and on guidelines to be followed by investigators working with potentially hazardous recombinants.

The NIH Recombinant DNA Molecule Program Advisory Committee has responsibility for: (i) Revising and updating guidelines to be followed by investigators working with DNA recombinants, (ii) for the time being, receiving information on purported EK2 and EK3 systems and evaluating and certifying that host-vector systems meet EK2 or EK3 criteria, (iii) resolving questions concerning potential biohazard and adequacy of containment capability if NIH staff or NIH Initial Review Group so request, and (iv) reviewing and approving large scale experiments with recombinant DNAs known to make harmful products (e.g., more than 10 liters of culture).

E. *NIH Staff.* NIH Staff has responsibility for: (i) Assuring that no NIH grants or contracts are awarded for DNA recombinant research unless they (a) conform to these guidelines, (b) have been properly reviewed and recommended for approval, and (c) include a properly executed Memorandum of Understanding and Agreement, (ii) reviewing and responding to questions or problems or reports submitted by institutional biohazards committees or principal investigators, and disseminating findings, as appropriate, (iii) receiving and reviewing applications for approval to lower containment levels when a cloned DNA recombinant derived from a shotgun experiment has been rigorously characterized and there is sufficient evidence that it is free of harmful genes, (iv) referring items covered under (ii) and (iii) above to the NIH Recombinant DNA Molecule Program Advisory Committee, as deemed necessary, and (v) performing site inspections of all P4 physical containment facilities, engaged in DNA recombinant research, and of other facilities as deemed necessary.

V. FOOTNOTES

[1] Biological Safety Cabinets referred to in this section are classified as *Class I, Class II* or *Class III* cabinets. A *Class I* cabinet is a ventilated cabinet for personnel protection having an inward flow of air away from the operator. The exhaust air from this cabinet is filtered through a high efficiency or high efficiency particulate air (HEPA) filter before being discharged to the outside atmosphere. This cabinet is used in three operational modes; (1) with an 8 inch high full width open front, (2) with an installed front closure panel (having four eight inch diameter openings) without gloves, and (3) with an installed front closure panel equipped with arm length rubber gloves. The face velocity of the inward flow of air through the full width open front is 75 feet per minute or greater. A *Class II* cabinet is a ventilated cabinet for personnel and product protection having an open front with inward air flow for personnel protection, and HEPA filtered mass recirculated air flow for product protection. The cabinet exhaust air is filtered through a HEPA filter. The face velocity of the inward flow of air through the full width open front is 75 feet per minute or greater. Design and performance specifications for *Class II* cabinets have been adopted by the National Sanitation Foundation, Ann Arbor, Michigan. A *Class III* cabinet is a closed front ventilated cabinet of gas tight construction which provides the highest level of personnel protection of all Biohazard Safety Cabinets. The interior of the cabinet is protected from contaminants exterior to the cabinet. The cabinet is fitted with arm length rubber gloves and is operated under a negative pressure of at least 0.5 inches water gauge. All supply air filtered through HEPA filters. Exhaust air is filtered through HEPA filters or incinerated before being discharged to the outside environment.

[2] Defined as observable under optimal laboratory conditions by transformation, transduction, phage infection and/or conjugation with transfer of phage, plasmid and/or chromosomal genetic information.

[3] The bacteria which constitute Class 2 of ref. 5 ("Agents of ordinary potential hazard * * *.") represent a broad spectrum of etiologic agents which possess different levels of virulence and degrees of communicability. We think it appropriate for our specific purpose to further subdivide the agents of Class 2 into those which we believe to be of relatively low pathogenicity and those which are moderately pathogenic. The several specific examples given may suffice to illustrate the principle.

[4] The terms "characterized" and "free of harmful genes" are unavoidably vague. But, in this instance, before containment conditions lower than the ones used to clone the DNA can be adopted, the investigator must obtain approval from the National Institutes of Health. Such approval would be contingent upon data concerning: (a) the absence of potentially harmful genes (e.g., sequences contained in indigenous tumor viruses or which code for toxic substances), (b) the relation between the recovered and desired segment (e.g., hybridization and restriction endonuclease fragmentation analysis where applicable), and (c) maintenance of the biological properties of the vector.

[5] A DNA preparation is defined as enriched if the desired DNA represents at least 99% (w/w) of the total DNA in the preparation. The reason for lowering the containment level when this degree of enrichment has been obtained is based on the fact that the total number of clones that must be examined to obtain the desired clone is markedly reduced. Thus, the probability of cloning a harmful gene could, for example, be reduced by more that 10^6-fold when a nonrepetitive gene from mammals was being sought. Furthermore, the level of purity specified here makes it easier to establish that the desired DNA does not contain harmful genes.

[6] The DNA preparation is defined as purified if the desired DNA represents at least 99% (w/w) of the total DNA in the preparation, provided that it was verified by more than one procedure.

[7] In special circumstances, in consultation with the NIH Office of Recombinant DNA Activities, an area biohazards committee may be formed, composed of members from the institution and/or other organizations beyond its own staff, as an alternative when additional expertise outside the institution is needed for the indicated reviews.

VI. REFERENCES

(1) Berg, P., D. Baltimore, H. W. Boyer, S. N. Cohen, R. W. Davis, D. S. Hogness, D. Nathans, R. O. Roblin, J. D. Watson, S. Weissman, and N. D. Zinder (1974). *Potential Biohazards of Recombinant DNA Molecules.* Science *185,303.*

(2) Advisory Board for the Research Councils. *Report of a Working Party on the Experimental Manipulation of the Genetic Composition of Micro-Organisms.* Presented to Parliament by the Secretary of State for Education and Science by Command of Her Majesty. January, 1975. London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1975.

(3) Berg, P., D. Baltimore, S. Brenner, R. O. Roblin and M. F. Singer (1975). *Summary Statement of the Asilomar Conference on Recombinant DNA Molecules.* Science *188,* 991; Nature *225,* 442; Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. *72,* 1981.

(4) *Laboratory Safety at the Center for Diseased Control* (Sept., 1974). U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare Publication No. CDC 75–8118.

(5) *Classification of Etiologic Agents on the Basis of Hazard.* (4th Edition, July, 1974). U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Public Health Service. Center for Disease Control, Office of Biosafety, Atlanta, Georgia 30333.

(6) *National Cancer Institute Safety Standards for Research Involving Oncogenic Viruses* (Oct., 1974). U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare Publication No. (NIH) 75–790.

(7) *National Institutes of Health Biohazards Safety Guide* (1974). U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Public Health Service, National Institutes of Health. U.S. Government Printing Office Stock No. 1740–00383.

(8) *Biohazards in Biological Research* (1973). A. Hellman, M. N. Oxman and R. Pollack (ed.). Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory.

(9) *Handbook of Laboratory Safety* (1971; 2nd Edition). N. V. Steere (ed.). The Chemical Rubber Co., Cleveland.

(10) Bodily, H. L. (1970). *General Administration of the Laboratory.* H. L. Bodily, E. L. Updyke and J. O. Masons (eds.), Diagnostic Procedures for Bacterial, Mycotic and Parasitic Infections. American Public Health Association, New York. pp. 11–28.

(11) Darlow, H. M. (1969). *Safety in the Microbiological Laboratory.* In J. R. Norris and D. W. Robbins (ed.), Methods in Microbiology. Academic Press, Inc. New York. pp. 169–204.

(12) *The Prevention of Laboratory Acquired Infection (1974).* C. H. Collins, E. G. Hartley, and R. Pilsworth, Public Health Laboratory Service, Monograph Series No. 6.

(13) Chatigny, M. A. (1961). *Protection Against Infection in the Microbiological Laboratory: Devices and Procedures.* In W. W. Umbreit (ed.). Advances in Applied Microbiology. Academic Press, New York, N.Y. *3* : 131–192.

(14) *Design Criteria for Viral Oncology Research Facilities,* U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Public Health Service, National Institutes of Health, DHEW Publication No. (NIH) 75–891, 1975.

(15) Kuehne, R. W. (1973). *Biological Containment Facility for Studying Infectious Disease.* Appl. Microbiol. *26* : 239–243.

(16) Runkle, R. S. and G. B. Phillips. (1969). *Microbial Containment Control Facilities.* Van Nostrand Reinhold, New York.

(17) Chatigny, M. A. and D. I. Clinger (1969). *Contamination Control in Aerobiology.* In R. L. Dimmick and A. B. Akers (eds.). An Introduction to Experimental

Aerobiology. John Wiley & Sons, New York, pp. 194–263.

(18) Grunstein, M. and D. S. Hogness (1975). *Colony Hybridization: A Method for the Isolation of Cloned DNAs That Contain a Specific Gene.* Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. *72,* 3961–3965.

(19) Morrow, J. F., S. N. Cohen, A. C. Y. Chang, H. W. Boyer, H. M. Goodman and R. B. Helling (1974). *Replication and Transcription of Eukaryotic DNA in Escherichia coli.* Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. USA *71,* 1743–1747.

(20) Hershfield, V., H. W. Boyer, C. Yanofsky, M. A. Lovett and D. R. Helinski (1974). *Plasmid ColE1 as a Molecular Vehicle for Cloning and Amplification of DNA.* Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. USA *71,* 3455–3459.

(21) Wensink, P. C., D. J. Finnegan, J. E. Donelson, and D. S. Hogness (1974). *A System for Mapping DNA Sequences in the Chromosomes of Drosophila melanogaster.* Cell *3,* 315–325.

(22) Timmis, K. F. Cabello and S. N. Cohen (1974). *Utilization of Two Distinct Modes of Replication by a Hybrid Plasmid Constructed In Vitro from Separate Replicons.* Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. USA *71,* 4556–4560.

(23) Glover, D. M., R. L. White, D. J. Finnegan and D. S. Hogness (1975). *Characterization of Six Cloned DNAs from Drosophila melanogaster. Including one that Contains the Genes for* λ*RNA.* Cell *5,* 149–155.

(24) Kedes, L. H., A. C. Y. Chang, D. Houseman and S. N. Cohen (1975). *Isolation of Histone Genes from Unfractionated Sea Urchin DNA by Subculture Cloning in E. coli.* Nature *255,* 533.

(25) Tanaka, T. and B. Weisblum (1975). *Construction of a Colicin E1-R Factor Composite Plasmid In Vitro: Means for Amplification of Deoxyribonucleic Acid.* J. Bacteriol. *121,* 354–362.

(26) Tanaka, T., B. Weisblum, M. Schnoss and R. Inman (1975). *Construction and Characterization of a Chimeric Plasmid Composed of DNA from Escherichia coli and Drosophila melanogaster.* Biochemistry *14,* 2064–2072.

(27) Thomas, M., J. R. Cameron and R. W. Davis (1974). *Viable Molecular Hybrids of Bacteriophage Lambda and Eukaryotic DNA.* Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. USA *71,* 4579–4583.

(28) Murray, N. E. and K. Murray (1974). *Manipulation of Restriction Targets in Phage* λ *to form Receptor Chromosomes for DNA Fragments.* Nature *251,* 476–481.

(29) Rambach, A. and P. Tiollais (1974). *Bacteriophage* λ *Having EcoR1 Endonuclease Sites only in the Non-essential Region of the Genome. Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. USA 71,* 3927–3930.

(30) Smith, H. W. (1975). *Survival of Orally-Administered Escherichia coli K12 in the Alimentary Tract of Man.* Nature *255,* 500–502.

(31) Anderson, E. S. (1975). *Viability of, and Transfer of a Plasmid from Escherichia coli K12 in the human intestine.* Nature *255,* 502–504.

(32) Falkow, S. (1975). Unpublished experiments quoted in Appendix D of the *Report of the Organizing Committee of the Asilomar Conference on Recombinant DNA Molecules.* (P. Berg, D. Baltimore, S. Brenner, R. O. Roblin and M. Singer, eds.) submitted to the National Academy of Sciences.

(33) R. Curtis III, personal communication.

(34) Novick, R. P. and S. I. Morse (1967). *In Vivo* Transmission of Drug Resistance *Factors between Strains of Staphylococcus aureus.* J. Exp. Med. *125,* 45–59.

(35) Anderson, J. D., W. A. Gillespie and M. H. Richmond. (1974). *Chemotherapy and Antibiotic Resistance Transfer between Enterobacteria in the Human Gastrointestinal Tract.* J. Med. Microbiol. *6,* 461–473.

(36) Ronald Davis, personal communication.

(37) K. Murray, personal communication; W. Szybalski, personal communication.

(38) Manly, K. R., E. R. Signer and C. M. Radding (1969). *Nonessential Functions of Bacteriophage* λ. Virology *37* 177.

(39) Gottesman, M. E. and R. A. Weisberg (1971). *Prophage Insertion and Excision.* In The Bacteriophage Lambda (A. D. Hershey, ed.). Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory pp. 113–138.

(40) Shimada, K., R. A. Weisberg and M. E. Gottesman (1972). *Prophage Lambda at Unusual Chromosomal Locations: I. Location of the Secondary Attachment Sites and the Properties of the Lysogens.* J. Mol. Biol. *63,* 483–503.

(41) Signer, E. (1969). *Plasmid Formation: A New Mode of Lysogeny by Phage* λ. Nature *223,* 158–160.

(42) Adams, M. H. (1959). *Bacteriophages.* Intersciences Publishers, Inc., New York.

(43) Jacob, F. and E. L. Wollman. (1956). *Sur les Processus de Conjugaison et de Recombinasion chez Escherichia coli. I. L'induction par Conjugaison ou Induction Zygotique.* Ann. Inst. Pasteur *91,* 486–510.

(44) J. S. Parkinson as cited (p. 8) by Hershey, A. D. and W. Dove (1971). *Introduction to Lambda. In:* The Bacteriophage λ. A. D. Hershey, ed. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, New York.

VII. MEMBERS OF THE RECOMBINANT DNA MOLECULE PROGRAM ADVISORY COMMITTEE

Chairman

Stetten, DeWitt, Jr., M.D., Ph.D., Deputy Director for Science, National Institutes of Health.

Vice Chairman

Jacobs, Leon, Ph.D., Associate Director for Collaborative Research, National Institutes of Health.

Adelberg, Edward A., Ph.D., Professor, Department of Human Genetics, School of Medicine, Yale University.

Chu, Ernest H. Y., Ph.D., Professor, Department of Human Genetics, Medical School, University of Michigan.

Curtiss, Roy, III, Ph.D., Professor, Department of Microbiology, School of Medicine, University of Alabama.

Darnell, James E., Jr., M.D., Professor, Department of Molecular Cell Biology, Rockefeller University.

Helinski, Donald R., Ph.D., Professor, Department of Biology, University of California, San Diego.

Hogness, David S., Ph.D., Professor, Department of Biochemistry, Stanford University.

Kutter, Elizabeth M., Ph.D., Member of the Faculty, in Biophysics, The Evergreen State College.

Littlefield, John W., M.D., Professor & Chairman, Department of Pediatrics, Children's Medical & Surgical Center, Johns Hopkins Hospital.

Redford, Emmette S., Ph.D., LL.D., Ashbel Smith Professor of Government and Public Affairs, Lyndon B. Johnson School of Public Affairs, University of Texas at Austin.

Rowe, Wallace P., M.D., Chief, Laboratory of Viral Diseases, National Institute of Allergy & Infectious Diseases, National Institutes of Health.

Setlow, Jane K., Ph.D., Biologist, Brookhaven National Laboratory.

Spizizen, John, Ph.D., Member and Chairman, Department of Microbiology, Scripps Clinic & Research Foundation.

Szybalski, Waclaw, D.Sc., Professor of Oncology, McArdle Laboratory, University of Wisconsin.

Thomas, Charles A., Jr., Ph.D., Professor, Department of Biological Chemistry, Harvard Medical School.

Executive Secretary

Gartland, William J., Jr., Ph.D., Health Scientist Administrator, National Institute of General Medical Sciences, National Institutes of Health.

Liaison Representatives

Hedrich, Richard, Ph.D., Coordination Program of Science Technology & Human Value, National Endowment for the Humanities.

Lewis, Herman W., Ph.D., Division of Biological and Medical Sciences, National Science Foundation.

Nightingale, Elena O., Ph.D., Assembly of Life Sciences, National Academy of Sciences.

Shepherd, George R., Ph.D., Division of Biomedical and Environmental Research, Energy Research and Development Administration.

APPENDIX A—STATEMENT ON THE USE OF "Bacillus subtilis" IN RECOMBINANT MOLECULE TECHNOLOGY

Unquestionably, *Escherichia coli* is the most well characterized unicellular organism. Years of basic research have enabled investigators to develop a well characterized genetic map, to obtain detailed knowledge of virulent and temperate bacteriophages, and to explore the physiology, genetics, and regulation of plasmids. More recently, the development of DNA-mediated transformation has permitted exogenous fragments or molecules of DNA to be incorporated into the genome or to reside as self-replicating units. The discovery of transformation of *Bacillus subtilis* by Spizien (1) stimulated the development of analternative model system. The purpose of this report is to summarize the current status of this genetic system and to describe the actual and potential vectors and vehicles available for recombinant molecule technology.

A. CURRENT KNOWLEGDE OF THE CHROMOSOMAL ARCHITECTURE AND MECHANISMS OF GENETIC EXCHANGE IN B. "SUBTILLS"

Two mechanisms of genetic exchange have been utilized to establish the linkage map of *B. subtilis,* DNA-mediated transformation (capable of transferring approximately 1% of the genome) and transduction with bacteriophage PBSI (capable of transferring 5–8% of the chromosome). Recent detailed genetic studies with PBSI by Lepesant-Kejzlorovà *et al.* (2) have resulted in the development of a circular genetic map for this organism. The current edition of the map (3) contains 196 loci. Biophysical analyses have established that the chromosome is circular (4) and replicates bidirectionally (5).

Transformation with purified fragments of DNA is a highly efficient process in *B. subtilis* with frequencies of 1 to 4% usually attained for any auxothrophic or antibiotic resistance markers. Frequencies of approximately 10% transformation can be achieved with DNA prepared from gently lysed L-forms or protoplasts (6). These large fragments of DNA are readily incorporated by the recipient cell. Generalized transduction occurs with bacteriophages SP10 (7), PBS1 (8), and SPP1 (9), while a low frequency of specialized transduction has been reported with bacteriophage ϕ105 (10).

Although transformation is most efficient in homologous crosses (*B. subtilis* into *B. subtilis*), it has also been possible to exchange DNA among closely related species (11). The most extensively studied members of the *B. subtilis* genospecies include *B. licheniformis, B. pumilus, B. amyloliquefaciens,* and *B. globigii* (refer to reference 12 for a review and references 13–15 for examples of this heterologous exchange). This exchange occurs even

though there is a surprisingly wide discrepancy between DNA—DNA hybridization among these organisms (16). Even though the frequency of transformation is low in the heterologous cross [e.g., *B. amyloliquefaciens* (donor)/*B subtilis* (recipient)], the newly acquired DNA from *B. amyloliquefaciens* in the *B. subtilis* background can be readily transferred at high efficiencies to other recipient strains of *B. subtilis* (14). Therefore, the extremely high frequency of transformation permits the recognition and selection of rare events.

B. CURRENT AND POTENTIAL VECTORS FOR RECOMBINANT MOLECULE EXPERIMENTS

Lovett and coworkers have recently described crytic plasmids in *B. pumilus* (17) and *B. subtilis* (18). Of these organisms, *B. subtilis* ATCC 7003 appears to be the most useful since it carries one to two copies of a plasmid with a molecular weight of 46×10^6. This strain is als closely related to *B. subtilis* 168. Another strain of *B. subtilis* (ATCC 15841) contains 16 copies of a plasmid with a molecular weight of 4.6×10^6. Currently it is not known whether genetic markers can be readily introduced into these plasmids. To date it has not been possible to readily stabilize plasmids derived from *B. pumilus* in *B. subtilis* even with heavy selective pressure (P. Lovett, personal communication).

Two temperate bacteriophages are under development as vectors in *B. subtilis*, Φ3T and SP02. Lysogeny of thymine auxotrophs (strains sarrying *thyA thyB*) by bacteriophage Φ3T results in "conversion" to a Thy+ phenotype. The attachment site for this bacteriophage and the bacteriophage gene for thymidylate synthetase (*thyP*) map between the bacterial *thyA* and *thyB* loci in the terminal region of the chromosome of *B. subtilis* (19). The viral genome is readily cleaved by the site-specific endonuclease, Bam 1 (20), to produce 5 fragments (one of which carries the *thyP* gene). The *thyP* carrying gene can be integrated into the bacterial genome in the absence of the intact viral genome. Because deletions are available that include the *thyP* region, it is theoretically possible to introduce *thyP* at many sites on the chromosome. The *thyP* gene can be readily purified for insertion into plasmids or utilized as a scaffold to integrate other heterologous DNA into the chromosome of *B. subtilis*. Alternatively, it is possible to purify fragments of the chromosome by gel electrophoresis (21, 22), for insertion into bacteriophage Φ3T or SP02. At present, unfortunately, only the former carries a selective marker, i.e., the gene for thymidylate synthetase, *thyP*.

C. DEVELOPMENT OF VEHICLES

B. subtilis is a Gram-positive sporulating rod that usually inhabits soil. Although it can exist on cutaneous surfaces of man (23) and experimental animals, it rarely produces disease. To develop a suitable vehicle it is imperative to have a host that is asporogenic. The most appropriate deletion mutation is deletion 29 (cit D). In addition to a deficiency in sporulation this mutant rapidly lyses when it has reached the end of its growth cycle. Presumably this is due to the failure to inactivate one of the autolytic enzymes (24). Through the introduction of a D-alanine requirement (34 ug/ml) it is possible to block transport of compounds that are transported by active transport (25, 26). The further introduction of thymine auxotrophy (defects in the *thyA thyB* loci) will enable the strain to survive only with a plasmid vector carrying the purified *thyP* gene from bacteriophage Φ3T or a defective bacteriophage Φ3T carrying the *thyP* gene but attached to the chromosome at an alternative site (due to the presence of deletion 29 in the host). We have recently isolated temperature-sensitive *thyP* mutants. If we can isolate a temperature-dependent lysogen that will grow only at 48°C it should be possible to make an unusual vehicle.

D. SITE-SPECIFIC ENDONUCLEASES

Recently two restriction modification systems have been observed between *B. subtilis* 168 and other bacilli. Trautner *et al.* have isolated an effective system that inhibits infection of the R strain of *B. subtilis* by bacteriophage SPP1 propagated on *B. subtilis* 168 (27). The site-specific nuclease recognizes the sequence GGCC. Young, Radnay, and CCGG
Wilson observed a restriction modification system between *B. amyloliquefaciens* and *B. subtilis* 168 (28). The endonuclease from *B. amyloliquefaciens* (20) recognizes the sequence GGATCC (29). More recently, two CCTAGG
additional enzymes have been isolated from *B. globigii* (30). The recognition sequence is not known.

E. ADVANTAGES AND LIABILITIES OF THE B. "SUBTILIS SYSTEM"

a. Advantages

1. *B. subtilis* is nonpathogenic. Asporogenic deletion mutants are available to preclude the problem of persistence through sporulation.

2. The circular chromosomal map is well defined. At least 196 loci have been positioned.

3. The organism is commercially important in the fermentation industry.

4. Large numbers of organisms can be disposed of readily with minimal environmental impact.

5. Unlike *E. coli*, it lacks endotoxin in the cell wall. Therefore the cells can be used as a single cell protein source.

6. The frequency of transformation is very high, facilitating the detection of rare events.

7. A unique bacteriophage, ϕ3T, exists that carries a gene that can be readily purified for "scaffolding" experiments.

b. Disadvantages

1. The knowledge of genetics and physiology of plasmids and viruses is primitive compared with *E. coli*.

2. High-frequency, specialized transduction is not available as a means of gene enrichment.

Based on its promise, it seems appropriate, and not chauvinistic, to urge development of this system.

Prepared by: Dr. Fank Young, University of Rochester.

REFERENCES

(1) Spizizen, J. 1958. Transformation of biochemically deficient strains of *Bacillus subtilis* by deoxyribonucleate. Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. *44*:1072–1078.

(2) Lepesant-Kejzlarova, J., J. A. Lepesant, J. Walle, A. Billault, and R. Dedonder. 1975. Revision of the linkage map of *Bacillus subtilis* 168: indications for circularity of the chromosome. J. Bacteriol. 121:823–834.

(3) Young, F. E. and G. A. Wilson. 1975. Chromosomal map of *Bacillus subtilis* p. 596–614. *In* P. Gerhardt, R. N. Costilow, and H. L. Sadoff (ed.), Spores VI. American Society for Microbiology, Washington, D.C.

(4) Wake, R. G. 1974. Termination of *Bacillus subtilis* chromosome replication as visualized by autoradiography. J. Mol. Biol. *86*: 223–231.

(5) Harford N. 1975. Bidirectional chromosome replication in *Bacillus subtilis*. J. Bacteriol. *121*:835–847.

(6) Bettinger, G. E. and F. E. Young. 1975. Transformation of *Bacillus subtilis:* Transforming ability of deoxyribonucleic acid in lysates of L-forms or protoplasts. J. Bacteriol. *122*:987–993.

(7) Thorne, C. B. 1962. Transduction in *Bacillus subtilis*. *J. Bacteriol. 83*:106–111.

(8) Takahashi, I. 1961. Genetic transduction in *Bacillus subtilis*. Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. *5*:171–175.

(9) Yasbin, R. E. and F. E. Young. 1974. Transduction in *Bacillus subtilis* by bacteriophage SPP1. J. Virol. *14*:1343–1348.

(10) Shapiro, J. A., D. H. Dean and H. O. Halvorson. 1974. Low-freqency specialized transduction with *Bacilus subtilis* bacteriophage ϕ105. Virology *62*:393–403.

(11) Marmur, J., E. Seaman, and J. Levine. 1963. Interspecific transformation in *Bacillus*. J. Bacteriol. *85*:461–467.

(12) Young, F. E. and G. A. Wilson. 1972. Genetics of *Bacillus subtilis* and other gram-positive sporulating bacilli, p. 77–106. *In* H. O. Halvorson, R. Hanson, and L. L. Campbell (ed.), Spores V. American Society for Microbiology, Washington, D.C.

(13) Chilton, M. D., and B. J. McCarthy, 1969. Genetic and base sequence homologies in bacilli. Genetics *62*:697–710.

(14) Wilson, G. A. and F. E. Young. 1972. Intergenotic transformation of the *Bacillus subtilis* genospecies. J. Bacteriol. *111*:705–716.

(15) Yamaguchi, K., Y. Nagata, and B. Maruo. 1974. Genetic control of the rate of α amylase synthesis in *Bacillus subtilis*. J. Bacteriol. *119* :410–415.

(16) Lovett, P. S., and F. E. Young. 1969. Identification of *Bacillus subtilis* NRRL B–3275 as a strain of *Bacillus pumilus*. J. Bacteriol. *100*:658–661.

(17) Lovett, P. S., and M. G. Bramucci. 1975. Plasmid deoxyribonucleic acid in *Bacillus subtilis* and *Bacillus pumilus*. J. Bacteriol. *124*:484–490.

(18) Lovet, P. S. 1973. Plasmid in *B. pumilus* and the enhanced sporulation of plasmid negative variants. J. Bacteriol. *115* :291–298.

(19) Young, F. E., M. T. Williams, and G. A. Wilson. Genetics of *Bacillus subtilis*. *In* D. Schlessinger (ed.) Microbiology 1976, in press.

(20) Wilson, G. A. and F. E. Young. 1975. Isolation of a sequence-specific endonuclease (Bam 1) from *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* H. J. Mol. Biol. *97* :123–125.

(21) Brown, L. Recombination analysis with purified endonuclease fragments in the RNA polymerase region of *Bacillus subtilis*. *In* D. Schlessinger (ed.), Microbiology 1976, in press.

(22) Harris-Warrick, R. M., Elkana, S. D. Ehrlich, and J. Lederberg. 1975. Electrophoretic separation of *Bacillus subtilis* genes. Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. *72* :2207–2211.

(23) Kloos, W. F., and M. S. Musselwhite. 1975. Distribution and persistence of *Staphylococcus* and *Micrococcus* species and other aerobic bacteria on human skin. Applied Micro. *30* :381–395.

(24) Brown, W. C., and F. E. Young. 1970. Dynamic interactions between cell wall polymers, extracellular proteases and autolytic enzymes. Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. *38* :564–568.

(25) Clark, V. L. and F. E. Young. 1974. Active transport of D-alanine and related amino acids by whole cells of *Bacillus subtilis*. J. Bacteriol. *120* :1085–1092.

(26) Clark, V. L. and F. E. Young. Active transport in cells of *B. subtilis* 168: Loss of endogenously energized transport in auxotrophs deprived of D-alanine or glycerol. Submitted to J. Bacteriol.

(27) Trautner, T. A., B. Pawlek, S. Bron, and C. Anagnostopoulos. 1974. Restriction and modification in *B. subtilis:* biologic aspects. Mol. Gen. Genet. *131* :181–191.

(28) Young, F. E., E. Radnay, and G. A. Wilson. Manuscript in preparation.

(29) Wilson, G. A. and F. E. Young. Unpublished data.

(30) Wilson, G. A., R. Roberts, and F. E. Young. Unpublished data.

(31) Wilson, G. A. and F. E. Young. Restriction and modification in bacilli. *In* D. Schlessinger (ed.), Microbiology 1976, in press.

APPENDIX B.—POLYOMA AND SV40 VIRUS

Polyoma virus is a virus of mice, and infection of wild mouse populations is a common event, for the virus has often been isolated from a high proportion of healthly adult animals, both wild and laboratory bred, of many colonies (Gross, L., Proc. Soc. Exp. Biol. *88*, 362–368, 1955; Rowe, W. P., Bact. Rev. *25* 18–31, 1961). As far as is known the virus almost never causes a disease in these animals. However, when large quantities of the virus are inoculated into newborn or suckling mice or hamsters, a variety of solid tumors is induced (Gross, L., Oncogenic Viruses, Second Edition, Pergamon Press, NY).

Polyoma virus grows lytically in mouse cells in tissue culture. Thus mouse cells in culture are probably transformed only by virus particles that contain certain kinds of defective genomes. Cells of other rodent species, however, can be transformed by polyoma virus particles that contain complete genomes (Folk, W., J. Virol., *11*, 424–431, 1973). The virus does not replicate to a significant extent in human cells in tissue culture (Eddy, B. E., Virol. Monogr., *7*, 1–114, 1969; Pollack, R. E. Salas, J., Wang, R., Kusano, T., and Green, H., J. Cell Physiol. *77*, 117–120, 1971). The resistance of the cells seems to be a consequence of the failure of the virus to absorb or uncoat. However even when naked viral DNA is introduced into the cells only an abortive cycle of replication ensues; early viral proteins are made, there is induction of cellular DNA synthesis, but no expression of late viral proteins is detectable (Gruen, R., Grassmann, M. and Grassmann, A., Virology, *58*, 290–293, 1974).

There is no evidence that polyoma virus can infect humans (Hartley, J., Huebner, R., Parker, J. and Rowe, W. P., unpublished data). Thus no antibodies to the virus have been detected in people living in buildings that are infested with virus-infected mice, nor in laboratory workers who have been exposed to the virus for a number of years.

At most, a small segment of polyoma virus DNA shows weak homology with a portion of the late region of SV40 DNA (Ferguson, J. and Davis, R. W., J. Bol. Biol., *94*, 135–150, 1975). However, there appears to be no genetic interaction between the two viruses and there is no immunological cross-reaction between the gene products of the two viruses.

SV40 causes persistent but apparently harmless infections of the kidneys of virtually all adult rhesus monkeys (Hsiung, G. D., Bact. Revs. *32*, 185–205, 1968), it causes tumors when injected into newborn hamsters (Girardi, A. J., Sweet, B. H., Slotnick, V. B. and Hillemann, M. R., Proc. Soc. Exp. Biol. Med., *105*, 420–427, 1964) and transforms cells of several mammalian species (including human). SV40 is able to infect human since antibodies to the virus are found in a small proportion of the human population (Shah, K. V., Goverdhan, M. K. and Ozer, H. L., Am. J. Epid. *93*, 291–298, 1970) and serum conversions have been noted in many laboratory personnel who have been exposed to the virus (Horvath, L. B., Acta Microbiol. Acta Sci. Hung. *12*, 201–206, 1965).

Isolations of SV40 have been reported from humans, twice from patients suffering from the rare demyelinating disease, progressive multifocal leukoencephalopathy (Weiner, L., Herndon, R., Narayon, O., Johnson, R. T., Shah, K., Rubinstein, L. G., Prezozisi, T. J. and Conley, F. K., New England J. Med. *286*, 385–390, 1972) and apparently from a tumor of a person with metastatic melanoma (Soriano, F., Shelburne, C. E. and Gokcen, M., Nature, *249*, 421–424, 1974). In other studies a non-structural antigen characteristic of papovaviruses, T antigen, has been detected in the nuclei of cells cultured from 2 meningiomas, while another SV40-specific antigen, U antigen, has been found in the cells of a third tumor of the same type (Weiss, A. F., Portman, R., Fisher, H., Simon, J. and Zang, K. D., Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. USA *72*, 609–613, 1975). Furthermore new papovaviruses have been isolated from the brains of patients with PML (JC virus—Padgett, B. L., Walker, D. L., zuRhein, G. M., Eckroade, R. I. and Dessel, B. H., Lancet *1*, 1257–1260, 1971), from the urine of a patient carrying a renal allograft (BK virus—Gardner, S. D., Field, A. M., Coleman, D. V. and Hulme, B. Lancet *1*, 1253–1257, 1971) and from a reticulum cell sarcoma and the urine of patients with the sex-linked recessive disorder, Wiscott-Aldrich syndrome (Takemoto, K. K., Rabson, A. S., Mullarkey, M. F., Blaese, R. M. Garon, C. F. and Nelson, D. J., Nat. Cancer Inst., *53*, 1205–1207, 1974). All of these viruses which are distributed widely throughout human populations share antigenic and biological properties with SV40; the virus particles are identical in size and architecture (Madeley, C. R., In Virus Morphology, Churchill-Livingstone, London, 134–135, 1972); the non-structural intracellular T antigen, which appears to be coded by the A gene of SV40 cross reacts extensively with antigens found in cells infected or transformed by BK or JC viruses; both JC or BK viruses induce tumors in newborn hamsters (Walter, D. L., Padgett, B. L. zuRhein, B. M., Albert, A. E. and Marsh, R. F., Science *181*, 674–676, 1973; Shah, K. V., Daniel, R. W. and Strandberg, J., J. Nat. Cancer Inst. *54*, 945–950, 1975); BK virus causes transformation of hamster cells in culture (Major, E. D., and DiMayorca, G., Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. US, *70*, 3210–3212, 1973; Portolani, M., Barbanti, A., Brodano, G. and LaPlaca, M. J., Virol. *15*, 420–422, 1975) and is able to complement the growth of certain temperature-sensitive mutants of SV40 (Mason, D. H. and Takemoto, K. K., submitted for publication).

FURTHER WORK

At present, a potential eukaryotic vector of choice is polyoma virus. And while available information indicates that it fulfills all the necessary criteria, we recommend that the following subjects be further investigated:

1. The molecular mechanism of resistance of human cells to the virus.

2. The extent of homology between polyoma virus DNA and the DNAs of human papovaviruses.

3. The ability of human papovaviruses to complement defective polyoma virus genomes.

Report of a working group consisting of: Dr. Bernard Fields, Harvard University School of Medicine; Dr. Thomas J. Kelly, Jr., Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine; Dr. Andrew Lewis, National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases; Dr. Malcolm Martin, National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases; Dr. Robert Martin, National Institute of Arthritis, Metabolism, and Digestive Diseases; Dr. Elmer Pfefferkorn, Dartmouth Medical School; Dr. Wallace P. Rowe, National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases; Dr. Aaron Shatkin, Roche Institute of Molecular Biology; Dr. Maxine Singer, National Cancer Institute. Rapporteur: Dr. Joe Sambrook, Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory.

APPENDIX C.—SUMMARY OF THE WORKSHOP ON THE DESIGN AND TESTING OF SAFER PROKARYOTIC VEHICLES AND BACTERIAL HOSTS FOR RESEARCH ON RECOMBINANT DNA MOLECULES

TORREY PINES INN, LA JOLLA, CALIFORNIA

The development of techniques for the cloning of DNA from both prokaryotic and eukaryotic organisms in bacteria has had great impact on research in biology and medicine and promises extraordinary social benefits. The biohazards involved in the use of this technology in many instances are very difficult to assess. For this reason codes of practice are being formulated in the United States and other countries for the conduct of those experiments that present a potential biohazard. One of the requirements for conducting certain cloning experiments is the use of safer vector (bacteriophage or plasmid) -host systems, i.e., vector-bacterium systems that have restricted capacity to survive outside of controlled conditions in the laboratory. Approximately sixty scientists from the United States and several foreign countries participated in a workshop on the Design and Testing of Safer Prokaryotic Vehicles and Bacterial Hosts for Research on Recombinant DNA Molecules at La Jolla, California, on 1 to 3 December, 1975. The workshop was sponsored by the Research Resources Branch of the National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases. The purposes of the meeting were the exchange of recent data on the development of safer prokaryotic host-vector systems, devising methods of testing the level of containment provided by these systems and exploring the various directions that future research should take in the construction of safer bacterial systems for the cloning of foreign DNA.

The first session of the workshop, chaired by W. Szybalski (University of Wisconsin), was devoted to bacteriophage vectors. Szybalski outlined the main safety features of the two-component, phage-bacterial system, in which the host bacteria offer the safety feature of not carrying the cloned DNA, and the phage vectors cannot be propagated in the absence of an appropriate host. There are two primary escape routes for the clones of foreign DNA carried by the phage vector: (1) establishment of a stable prophage or plasmid in the laboratory host used for phage propagation, and subsequent escape of this self replicating lysogen or carrier system, and (2) escape of the phage vector which carries the cloned DNA and its subsequent productive encounter with a suitable host in the natural environment. The general consensus was that to ensure safety, both routes should be blocked by appropriate genetic modifications. For phage λ, route (1) can be blocked by phage mutations that interfere with lysogenization (*att*-, *int*-, *cI*-, *cIII*-, *vir*) *and plasmid formation* (*N*+, *nin*R, *vS*, *ri*^{c}, *c17*, Ots, *crots*), and by mutations on the *Escherichia coli* host that affect these processes (*att*B-, *dnc*Ats) and host survival. Route (2), [which is of low probability since λ phages do not survive well in natural environments (no λcI phage was recovered after ingestion of 10^8–10^{11} particles), are killed by desiccation, and have a low chance to encounter a naturally sensitive host] can be blocked further by the following phage modifications: (a) mutations which result in extreme instability of the infectious phage particles under all conditions other than those specially designed for phage propagation in the laboratory (e.g., high concentrations of putrescine or some other compound), or (b) employing phage vectors in which the tail genes are deleted and which permit propagation of only the DNA-packed heads; only under laboratory conditions could such heads be made transiently infec-

tious by rejoining them with separately prepared tails. The high instability of the phage would minimize the possibility of transfer of the cloned genes into receptive bacteria found in nature. Moreover, the propagation of the phage can be blocked by many conditional mutations, which would be designed to block any secondary route of escape, mainly depending on transfer of the cloned DNA into another phage or bacterial host. It was recommended further that the vector be designed in such a manner as to permit easy insertion and monitoring of the foreign DNA and rapid assay of the safety features and give a high yield of cloned DNA (not less than 10^{11} molecules per ml). There also was general agreement that host-phage systems other than *E. coli* should be considered, especially those restricted to very rare and unusual environments. Also, plasmids derived from phage vectors and which give very high DNA yields while exhibiting safety features, e.g., λdvcrots, should be considered as vehicles for cloned DNA.

Szybalski and S. Brenner (Cambridge University) stressed that research on recombinant DNA molecules may lend itself to very simple and inexpensive mechanical containment, e.g., a small sealed glove box, since all the vectors that carry such recombinant molecules possibly can be both created and destroyed in such a box, while development of special methods might permit study of many properties of the recombinant DNA, without ever removing it from the box.

These safety features were reflected in the subsequent presentations. F. Blattner and W. Williams (University of Wisconsin) described four specially constructed λ-φ80 phages which incorporate many of these safety features, and which they named Charon phages, for the mythical boatman of the river Styx. Some of these highly contained phages give yields of over 10^{11} particles/ml. R. Davis, J. Cameron and K. Struhl (Stanford University) found that λ phages that carry foreign DNA never grow as well as the parental vector, which would select against their survival in nature. They also reported that some eukaryotic genes could be expressed in *E. coli*, partially compensating for deficiencies in the histidine pathway or in *polA* or *lig* functions. These investigators surveyed over 1000 strains of *E. coli* isolated in the natural environment and did not find a single strain that could support propagation of the λ*vir* vector.

V. Bode (Kansas State University) discussed the possibility of growing tail-free λ heads. Such heads, which are packed with DNA, are very fragile, unless stored in 0.01 M putrescine buffer. Head yields close to 10^{11}/ml could easily be attained and, when required, heads could be quantitatively rejoined with separately supplied tails under special laboratory conditions. W. Arber, D. Scandella and J. Elliott (University of Basel) described bacterial host mutants that permit efficient infection only by phages with a full complement of DNA. This permits selecting for vectors that carry long fragments of foreign DNA.

K. Matsubara, T. Mukai and Y. Takagi (University of Osaka and Kyushu University), and G. Hobom and P. Phillippsen (University of Freiburg and Stanford University) described various defective λ plasmids (λdv) that could be used as efficient vectors. Matsubara has shown that temperature-sensitive *cro* mutations permit obtaining between 1000 and 3000 cloned molecules per cell and at the same time result in killing of the carrier cells at body temperature. The mutations *Ots* and *Pts* were also evaluated as safety features. Phillippsen described many new λdv plasmids created by cutting λ DNA with *Hind*III and *Bam*I restriction endonucleases followed by ligation. The final talk by F. Young, G. Wilson and M. Williams (University of Rochester) summarized the progress on the development of safer *Bacillus subtilis* host mutants and phages, especially *φ3*, as vectors. New restriction nucleases, Bgl-1 and Bgl-2, were also described.

The morning session on bacteriophage vectors was followed by a session on plasmid vectors that was chaired by D. Helinski (University of California, San Diego). Helinski presented the following properties as highly desirable characteristics of a safer plasmid vehicle: (a) non-conjugative; (b) non-mobilizable or poorly mobilizable by a conjugative plasmid; (c) possesses little or no extraneous genetic information; (d) poorly recombines or does not recombine with the chromosome of the host cell; (e) provides no selective advantage to the host cell or the selective property is conditional; and (f) possesses mutations that restrict its maintenance to a specific host, prevent replication at mammalian body temperature and/or provide the plasmid with the capability of killing any cell to which it might be transmitted other than the host cell. V. Hershfield (University of California, San Diego) described the properties of a variety of derivatives of the ColE1 plasmid and the broad-host range, P-type plasmid, RK2. One of the ColE1 derivatives, ColE1-*trp*, constructed in collaboration with C. Yanofsky and N. Franklin (Stanford University) provides the means to use the tryptophan genes of *E. coli* as a selective marker in transformation with recombinant DNA in situations where it is desirable to avoid antibiotic resistance genes. In addition, Hershfield described collaborative work with H. Boyer that resulted in the development of a mini-ColE1 plasmid and derivatives of this plasmid (mini-ColE1-*kan* and mini-ColE1-*trp*) as cloning vehicles. Finally, she described the temperature-sensitility properties of *trp* and *kan* derivatives of a temperature sensitive replication mutant of ColE1 isolated by J. Collins (Molecular biology Institute, Stockheim) and hybrid ColE1 plasmids carrying the *Eco*RI generated Cts fragment of bacteriophage λ-trp61.

J. Carbon (University of California, Santa Barbara) described a replica plating method that greatly facilitates the detection of *E. coli* clones bearing ColE1 plasmids. The procedure, which utilizes the F_1 plasmid to promote the transfer of a hybrid ColE1 plasmid to a suitable auxotrophic recipient, was successful in identifying clones bearing hybrid plasmids carrying a number of different regions of the *E. coli* chromosome. The contributions of A. J. Clark and collaborators (University of California, Berkeley) were relevant to the problem of the mobilization and subsequent transfer of non-conjugative plasmids carrying foreign DNA of a potentially hazardous nature. Clark described the variations in transmission frequencies between the nonconjugative plasmids pSC101, pML31, pSC138 and a number of pSC101 hybrids containing various *Eco*RI fragments of F when the conjugal transfer of these plasmids was promoted by several different conjugative plasmids.

I. C. Gunsalus and collaborators (University of Illinois) and A. Chakrabarty (General Electric Research and Development Center) described the properties of a variety of plasmids isolated from *Pseudomonas putida*. These contributions were followed by a discussion on the merits of developing plasmid-host systems involving *Pseudomonas strains* that naturally exhibit unusual growth requirements. Similar studies with plasmids isolated from *Bacillus megaterium* by B. Carlton (University of Georgia) from *B. subtilis* by P. Lovett (University of Maryland) and other naturally occurring *Bacillus* species by W. Goebel and K. Bernhard (Microbiology Institute, Wurzburg) were discussed and their further development as plasmid-host cloning systems was explored. It was clear from these presentations that considerable progress has been made recently in the identification and characterization of a variety of plasmid elements that occur naturally in *Pseudomonas* and *Bacillus* species. Several of the plasmids described show considerable promise as plasmid cloning systems involving a host other than *E. coli*.

A third session on the ecology and epidemiology of vector-host systems was chaired by S. Falkow (University of Washington). This workshop emerged, in part, from expressed fears that microorganisms containing cloned fragments of foreign DNA potentially pose a threat to health or disrupt the normal ecological chain in some manner. Consequently, this session was devoted to a review of currently available information on the ecology and epidemiology of *E. coli* and related bacterial species since it was recognized that *E. coli* K-12 would be the prokaryotic host most commonly employed in the cloning of DNA molecules in the immediate future. F. Orskov (Escherichia Reference Center, Copenhagen) reviewed the state of *E. coli* serotyping and what has been learned about the distribtuion of *E. coli* types in health and disease. Only certain *E. coli* types are generally recognized as good colonizers of the human gut and such strains come from a handful of the 160 well defined O (lipopolysaccharide) antigen types and invariably posses K (acidic polysaccharide capsule) antigens. Some serotypes apparently have become disseminated worldwide and possibly represent the proliferation of a bacterial clone because of, as yet unkown, selective pressures. In contrast, *E. coli* K-12 has no detectable O or K antigens and is considered to be rough. This may account, at least in part, for its demonstrable poor ability to colonize the human or animal gut. However, R. Freter (University of Michigan) point out that we still remain largely ignorant of the factors which control intestinal *E. coli* populations. Freter also noted that while adherence to the mucosal surface of the small intestine is important in the pathogenesis of *E. coli* diarrheal disease, the "normal" long-lasting symbiotic relationship between a mammalian host and bacterium is established in the cecum and colon. It is in these locations that factors come into play to determine whether an *E. coli* strain passing through the intestine will become successfully implanted or whether it will be quickly eliminated in the feces.

The factors controlling implantation include competition for substrates, inhibitors and the physiological state of the organism when it reaches the large bowel. For example, ingested *E. coli* previously grown under usual laboratory conditions fare poorly while cells of the same strain "pre-adapted" in Eh, pH, etc., often colonize well. Freter has developed a continuous flow culture model which may be useful in studying the mechanisms of implantation. Falkow reviewed the pathogenicity of *E. coli*. *E. coli* causes diarrheal disease either by direct invasion of the bowel epithelium or by elaboration of enterotoxin(s). While invasive *E. coli* appear to owe their pathogenicity to a constellation of at least five unlinked chromosomal gene clusters, toxigenic *E. coli* species generally owe their pathogenicity to the possession of two species, Ent and K. The introduction of Ent and K plasmids may be sufficient to convert a normal wild-type *E. coli* into a strain now capable of causing overt clinical disease. However, the introduction of these plasmids into *E. coli* K-12 sublines had no discernible effect on their ability to cause disease, although the K-12 strains could now better colonize calves. Despite the observation that

E. coli K–12 did not appear to offer a significant hazard as a potential enteric pathogen even when it possessed well-defined determinants of pathogenicity it was emphasized by Orskov, Freter and Falkow that *E. coli* K–12 strains carrying recombinant DNA molecules could still act as effective genetic donors *in vivo* and still posed a significant problem requiring control. E. Geldreich (U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Cincinnati, Ohio) discussed the possible outcomes of the release of *E. coli* containing recombinant DNA molecules into the aquatic environment and concluded that total reliance cannot be placed on sewage treatment and the natural self-purification capacity of receiving waters to limit potential hazards. While these are realistic barriers to the dissemination of *E. coli* and associated fecal organisms via the water route, they are not infallible because of technological limitations, improper operational practices and system overloading. Finally, M. Starr University of California, Davis) described the numerous genera of gram–negative bacteria found naturally occurring in the soil and on plants. He stated that most of these organisms do not appear to be a reasonable alternative to *E. coli* K–12 as a host for recombinant DNA molecules. Indeed, Starr pointed out that since such genera as *Erwinia, Rhizobium* and *Agrobacterium* are known to conjugate with *E. coli*, the potential dissemination of recombinant DNA molecule includes a greater spectrum of microorganisms than just enteric species.

The fourth session of the workshop, chaired by R. Curtiss III (University of Alabama), was concerned with the construction of safer bacterial hosts for DNA cloning. The goals in constructing safer host strains enumerated at the beginning of the session included introduction of mutations that would: (a) preclude colonization in normal ecological niches; (b) preclude cell wall biosynthesis except in specially defined media; (c) cause degradation of genetic information in normal ecological niches; (d) cause vectors to be host-dependent; (e) minimize transmission of recombinant DNA to other strains in normal ecological niches; (f) increase usefulness for recombinant DNA molecule research; and (g) permit monitoring.

Most of the progress in developing safer hosts has been achieved with *E. coli* K–12, although F. Young described a *B. subtilis* strain with a deletion for sporulation genes which readily undergoes autolysis. The strain also has defects in genes for purine and TTP biosynthesis and a mutation conferring a D-alanine requirement can be introduced to cause cell wall biosynthesis to be defective. This strain may be defective in transformation, however, and therefore might be useful only with a phage vector which has yet to be developed and/or discovered.

A. I. Bukhari (Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory) described the use of the *dapD8* mutation in *E. coli* K–12 to block cell wall biosynthesis and another non-reverting mutation which causes sensitivity to bile salts and detergents. The *dapD8* allele is the most stable *dap* point mutation known, although it does revert at frequencies of 10^{-8} to 10^{-9}. The mutation conferring bile salts sensitivity was obtained after Mu–1 infection of an Hfr strain and, although exhibiting the theoretically useful properties of ease of DNA isolation and inability to survive in the intestinal tract, might be due to Mu insertion which would compromise its use for safe strain construction.

Curtiss reported on the work performed by him and his coworkers in constructing and testing numerous strains with different mutations. Survival of strains *in vivo* was tested by feeding rats 10^{10} cells in milk by stomach tube. △*pur* mutations did not reduce strain titers in feces whereas △*thyA*; △*thyA drm*; and △*thyA dra* mutations gave 10^2-fold, 10^3-fold and 10^5-fold reductions, respectively, in strain titers in feces. Strains with △*thyA* mutations also exhibited thymineless death in *in vitro* tests. Since strains with the *dapD8* allele can revert to Dap+ strains were constructed with both the *dapDs and* .△*bioH-asd mutations*. These strains have not been observed to revert to Dap+ but can survive passage through the rat intestine and in growth media lacking diaminopimelic acid but containing NaCl and 0.5% usable carbon sources. This survival was due to the production of the mucopolysaccharide, colanic acid, which permits many of the cells to grow and survive as spheroplasts. A △*gal-chl*r mutation (also deletes λ*att*, *bio* and *uvrB* genes) was introduced which blocks colanic acid biosynthesis and leads to no detectable survivors in media lacking diaminopimelic acid or following passage through the rat intestine. The *dapD8* △*bioH-asd* △*gal-chl*r strains are more readily lysed, transform at higher frequencies and are conjugation-defective in matings with donors possessing conjugative plasmids in the P, W and O incompatibility groups but Con+ as recipients for F, I and T group plasmids when compared to the dap+ *gal*+ parent strain. Strains with *endA mutations* were also observed to exhibit increased transformation frequencies. Attempts to introduce temperature-sensitive *polA* alleles into strains to block replication of ColE1 cloning vectors at elevated temperatures and to cause DNA degradation at elevated temperatures in the presence of *recA* and △*thyA* alleles often do not have the same properties in the constructed strains as in the strains in which the allele was originally induced. Many mutations causing a Con- phenotype have been investigated, but many of these revert or do not exhibit a Con- phenotype in matings with donors possessing conjugative plasmids of the incompatibility groups commonly found in enteric microorganisms. Some Con- mutants exhibit increased sensitivity to bile salts; thus, the mutant described by Bukhari may also exhibit a Con- phenotype. All of the strains constructed by the Curtiss group are SuII+ and most have mutations abolishing restriction alone or both restriction and modification. Thus, sufficient information is now known to construct a usable safer *E. coli* K–12 host. Curtiss and collaborators are now introducing the △*thyA* and *dna* mutations into their *dapD8* △*bio-asd* △*gal-chl*r-*uvrB hsr nalA*r (for ase in monitoring) Su+ λr Φ80r strain to accomplish this objective.

The final session involved a general discussion of some of the major points raised previously in the workshop. There was general agreement at this session that both plasmid-host and phage-host systems have been developed that should meet the criteria of an EK2 system specified by the National Institutes of Health guidelines for research on recombinant DNA molecules. Additional testing is required to confirm the EK2 properties of these available systems, but it is anticipated that these vector-host systems will meet these tests.

Dr. Donald R. Helinski, University of California, San Diego.

Dr. Stanley Falkow, University of Washington.

Dr. Roy Curtiss III, University of Alabama.

Dr. Waclaw Szybalski, University of Wisconsin.

APPENDIX D.—SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION ON PHYSICAL CONTAINMENT

I. BIOLOGICAL SAFETY CABINETS

Biological Safety Cabinets suitable for confining operations involving recombinant DNA molecules are described below:

1. *Class I.* A ventilated cabinet for personnel protection only, with an unrecirculated inward flow of air away from the operator. The exhaust air from this cabinet may be filtered through a high-efficiency or high-efficiency particulate air (HEPA) filter before being discharged to the outside atmosphere. This cabinet is suitable for research work with the Center for Disease Control (CDC) classes of etiologic agents 1, 2 and 3 where no product protection is required. This cabinet may be used in three operational modes: (i) with an eight-inch high, full-width open front; (ii) with an installed front closure panel (having four, eight-inch diameter openings) without gloves; and (iii) with an installed front closure panel equipped with arm length rubber gloves. See Table I for ventilation requirements, agent use limitations, and minimum performance requirements.

2. *Class II.* A ventilated cabinet for personnel and product protection having an

open front with inward air flow for personnel protection, and HEPA-filtered recirculated mass air flow for product protection. The cabinet exhaust air is filtered through a HEPA filter. Two models of this cabinet are available, Type 1 and Type 2.

(i) *Type 1.* The Type 1 recirculates approximately 70% of the air. The exhaust air from this cabinet may discharge into the laboratory or be diverted out of the laboratory. This cabinet is suitable for CDC classes of etiologic agents 1, 2, and 3. Vapors or gases which are hazardous from a toxic, radioactive, or flammability standpoint should not be used in this cabinet because of the high quantity of recirculated air.

(ii) *Type 2.* The Type 2 cabinet recirculates approximately 30% of the air. The exhaust air from this cabinet is normally ducted out of the laboratory through a HEPA filter and, occasionally, an activated charcoal filter depending on the operation. The cabinet may be used with gases or vapors that are hazardous from a toxic, radioactive, or flammability standpoint. However, any consideration of use of such materials should be evaluated carefully from the standpoint of build-up to dangerous levels and problems of decontamination of the cabinet. See Table I for ventilation requirements, agent use limitations, and minimum performance requirements.

3. *Class III.* A closed front ventilated cabinet of gas-tight construction providing total protection for personnel and product from contaminants exterior to the cabinet. The cabinet is operated under a negative pressure of at least 0.5 inches water gauge. All supply air is HEPA-filtered. Exhaust air is HEPA-filtered or incinerated to protect the environment. This cabinet, fitted with arm length rubber gloves, provides the highest containment of these three classes of cabinets and is utilized for all activities involving high risk agents (i.e., CDC etiologic agents, class 4). See Table I for ventilation requirements, agent use limitations, and minimum performance requirements.

The integrity of any cabinet depends on initial and periodic evaluation to meet established performance tests. Table I outlines the minimum performance required to assure that the cabinets will provide protection of personnel and the environment.

TABLE I.—*Biological safety cabinets, safety performance requirements, and specifications, June 1976*

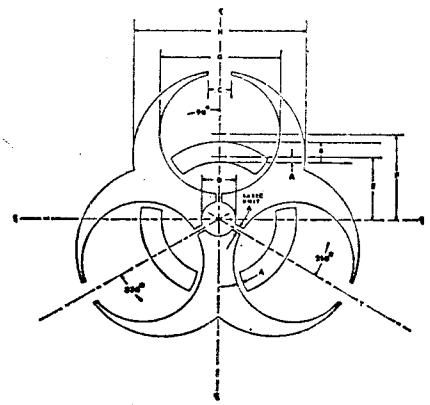
Cabinet	Use classification		Performance requirements				Exhaust filter efficiency (percent)
			Face velocity	Exhaust air (cubic feet per minute)		Leak tightness	
	DNA [1]	CDC [2]	(linear feet per minute)	4-ft hood	6-ft hood		
Class I	P1–P3	1–3	75	200	300	Not applicable	99.97
Class II, type 1	P1–P3	1–3	75	260	400	Gas tight; leak rate <1 by 10^{-4} cm^3/s 2-in water gage pressure.	99.97
Class II, type 2	P1–P3	1–3	100	250	360	Pressure tight; no air/soap bubble at 2-in water gage pressure.	99.97
Class III	P4	4	[3]	[4]	[4]	Gas tight; leak rate <1 by 10^{-4} cm^3/s at 3-in water gage pressure.	99.97

[1] For work with recombinant DNA molecules.
[2] Center for Disease Control (U.S. Public Health Service).
[3] Not applicable.
[4] Based on 1 vol. of air change each 3 min, in the absence of unusual heat or moisture that would require more air changes.

II. UNIVERSAL BIOHAZARD WARNING SYMBOL (1)

The biological hazard warning symbol (biohazard symbol) specified herein shall be used to signify the actual or potential presence of a biohazard and to identify equipment, containers, rooms, materials, experimental animals or combinations thereof which contain or are contaminated with viable hazardous agents.

The biohazard symbol shall be designed and proportioned as illustrated here:



DIMENSION	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H
UNITS	1	2½	4	4	11	16	21	30

The symbol shall be as prominent as practical, and of a size consistent with the size of the equipment or material to which it is affixed, provided the proportions shown above are maintained, and, in any case, that the symbol can be easily seen from as many directions as possible.

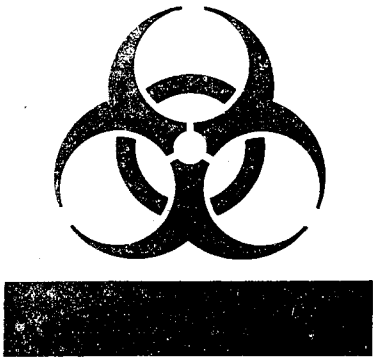
Except when circumstances do not permit, the symbol shall be oriented with one of the three open circles pointed up and the other two forming a base.

The symbol color shall be a fluorescent orange or orange-red color.* Background color is optional as long as there is sufficient contrast for the symbol to be clearly defined.

Revised 9-7-66
*Day-Glo® Fire Orange of the Switzer Brothers, Inc. is cited as an example, not an endorsement.

The biohazard symbol shall be used or displayed only to signify the actual or potential presence of biological hazard.

Appropriate wording may be used in association with the symbol to indicate the nature or identity of the hazard, name of individual responsible for its control, precautionary information, etc., but never should this information be superimposed on the symbol.



III. LABORATORY TECHNIQUES FOR BIOHAZARD CONTROL

A. Pipetting

1. No infectious or toxic materials should be pipetted by mouth (2, 3, 4).

2. No infectious mixtures should be prepared by bubbling expiratory air through a liquid with a pipette (2, 3, 4).

3. No infectious material should be blown out of pipettes (2, 3, 4).

4. Pipettes used for the pipetting of infectious or toxic materials should be plugged with cotton (2, 3, 4).

5. Contaminated pipettes should be placed horizontally in a pan containing enough suitable disinfectant to allow complete immersion (2, 4, 4). They should not be placed vertically in a cylinder.

6. The pan and pipettes should be autoclaved as a unit and replaced by a clean pan with fresh disinfectant (2, 3, 4).

7. Infectious material should not be mixed by alternate suction and expulsion through a pipette (2, 3, 4).

8. Mark-to-mark pipettes are preferable to other types, as they do not require expulsion of the last drop (5).

9. Discharge should be as close as possible to the fluid or agar level, or the contents should be allowed to run down the wall of the tube or bottle whenever possible—not dropped from a height (5).

10. A disinfectant-wetted towel over the immediate work surface is useful in some cases to minimize the splash from accidental droppage (9).

B. Syringes and Needles (9)

1. To lessen the chance of accidental injection, aerosol production or spills, avoid unnecessary use of the syringe and needle. For instance:

(i) Use the needle for parenteral injections but use a blunt needle or a cannula on the syringe for oral or intranasal inoculations.

(ii) Do not use a syringe and needle as a substitute for a pipette in making dilutions of dangerous fluids.

2. Use the syringe and needle in a Biological Safety Cabinet only and avoid quick and unnecessary movements of the hand holding the syringe.

3. Examine glass syringes for chips and cracks, and needles for barbs and plugs.

Note: This should be done prior to sterilization before use.

4. Use needle-locking (Luer-Lok® type) syringes only, and be sure that the needle is locked securely into the barrel. A disposable syringe-needle unit (where the needle is an integral part of the unit) is preferred.

5. Wear surgical or other type rubber gloves for all manipulations with needles and syringes.

6. Fill the syringe carefully to minimize air bubbles and frothing of the inoculum.

7. Expel excess air, liquid and bubbles from a syringe vertically into a cotton pledget moistened with the proper disinfectant, or into a small bottle of sterile cotton.

8. Do not use the syringe to expel forcefully a stream of infectious fluid into an open vial or tube for the purpose of mixing. Mixing with a syringe is condoned only if the tip of the needle is held below the surface of the fluid in the tube.

9. If syringes are filled from test tubes, take care not to contaminate the hub of the needle, as this may result in transfer of infectious material to the fingers.

10. When removing a syringe and needle from a rubber-stoppered bottle, wrap the needle and stopper in a cotton pledget moistened with the proper disinfectant. If there is danger of the disinfectant contaminating sensitive experiments, a sterile dry pledget may be used and discarded immediately into disinfectant solution.

11. Inoculate animals with the hand "behind" the needle to avoid punctures.

12. Be sure the animal is properly restrained prior to the inoculation, and be on the alert for any unexpected movements of the animal.

13. Before and after injection of an animal, swab the site of injection with a disinfectant.

14. Discard syringes into a pan of disinfectant without removing the needle. The syringe first may be filled with disinfectant by immersing the needle and slowly withdrawing the plunger, and finally removing the plunger and placing it separately into the disinfectant. The filling action clears the needle and dilutes the contents of the syringe. Autoclave syringes and needles in the pan of disinfectant.

15. Use separate pans of disinfectant for disposable and nondisposable syringes and needles to eliminate a sorting problem in the service area.

16. Do not discard syringes and needles into pans containing pipettes or other glassware that must be sorted out from the syringes and needles.

C. Opening Culture Plates, Tubes, Bottles, and Ampoules

1. Plates, tubes and bottles of fungi may release spores in large numbers when opened. Such cultures should be manipulated in a Biological Safety Cabinet (6, 15).

2. In the absence of definite accidents or obvious spillage, it is not certain that opening of plates, tubes and bottles of other microorganisms has caused laboratory infection. However, it is probable that among the highly infective agents, some infections have occurred by this means and are represented in the 80% for which no known act or accident is ascribable (3).

3. Water of syneresis in petri dish cultures is usually infected and forms a film between the rim and lid of the inverted plate. Aerosols are dispersed when this film is broken by opening the plate. Vented plastic petri dishes where the lid touches the rim at only three points are less likely to offer this hazard (8, 19).

4. The risk may also be minimized by using properly dried plates, but even these (when incubated anaerobically) are likely to be wet after removal from an anaerobic jar. Filter papers fitted into the lids reduce, but do not prevent, dispersal. If plates are obviously wet they should be opened in the Biological Safety Cabinet (8).

5. Less obvious is the release of aerosols when screw-capped bottles or plugged tubes are opened. This happens when a film of infected liquid which may collect between the rim and the liner is broken during removal of the closure (8).

6. Dried, infected culture material may also collect at or near the rim or neck of culture tubes and may be dispersed into the air when disturbed (18). Containers of dry powdered hazardous materials (e.g., Class 3 fungal agents in the spore phase of growth) should be opened only in a Biological Safety Cabinet (6, 14).

7. When the neck of an ampoule containing liquid is broken after nicking with a file, the snapping action creates aerosols. The following methods have been recommended:

(i) After nicking the ampoule with a file, wrap the ampoule in disinfectant-wetted cotton before breaking. Wear gloves (2).

(ii) The bottom of the ampoule should be held in several layers of tissue paper to protect the hands, and a file mark made at the neck. A hot glass rod should be carefully applied to the mark. The glass will crack, allowing air to enter the ampoule and equalize the pressures. After a few seconds the ampoule should be wrapped in a few layers of tissue and broken along the crack. The tissues and ampoule neck can then be discarded into disinfectant, and the contents of the ampoule removed with a syringe. If the ampoule contains dried cultures, about 0.5 cm^3 of broth should be added slowly to avoid blowing dried material out. The contents may then be mixed without bubbling and withdrawn into a culture tube (8).

(iii) The researcher uses an intense, but tiny, gas-oxygen flame and heats the tip of the hard glass ampoule until the expanding internal air pressure blows a bubble. After allowing this to cool, he breaks the bubble while holding it in a large low temperature flame; this immediately incinerates any infectious dust which may come from the ampoule when the glass is broken (16). Preliminary practice with a simulant ampoule of the same type actually in use is necessary to develop a technique that will not cause explosion of the ampoule.

(iv) A simple device has been recommended consisting of a sleeve of rubber tubing into which the ampoule is inserted before it is broken (17, 18).

D. Centrifuging

1. A safety centrifuge cabinet or safety centrifuge cup (3, 7, 8, 14, 22) may be used to house or safeguard all centrifuging of infectious substances. When bench type centrifuges are used in a Biological Safety Cabinet, the glove panel should be in place with the glove ports covered. The centrifuge operation creates air currents that may cause escape of agent from an open cabinet (2, 3, 4, 13).

2. In some situations, in the absence of O-ring cap sealed trunnion cups, specimens can be enclosed in sealed plastic bags before centrifugation (12).

3. Before centrifuging, inspect tubes for cracks, inspect the inside of the trunnion cup for rough walls caused by erosion or adhering matter, and carefully remove bits of glass from the rubber cushion (4, 10).

4. A germicidal solution should be added between the tube and trunnion cup to disinfect the materials in case of accidential breakage. This practice also provides an excellent cushion against shocks that might otherwise break the tube (4, 10).

5. Avoid decanting centrifuge tubes. If you must do so, afterwards wipe off the outer rim with a disinfectant; otherwise the infectious fluid will spin off as an aerosol (4, 10).

6. Avoid filling the tube to the point that the rim, cap or cotton plug ever becomes wet with culture (4, 10).

7. Screw caps, or caps which fit over the rim outside the centrifuge tube are safer than plug-in closures. Some fluid usually collects between a plug-in closure and the rim of the tube. Even screw-capped bottles are not without risk, however; if the rim is soiled some fluid will escape down the outside of the tube. Screw-capped bottles may jam in the bucket, and removing them is hazardous. Propping such bottles higher in the bucket with additional rubber buffers is mechanically unsound (8).

8. Kitchen foil is often used to cap centrifuge tubes. This creates more risk than the screw cap. Foil caps often become detached in handling and centrifuging (8).

9. The balancing of buckets is often mismaanged. Care must be taken to ensure that matched sets of trunnions, buckets and plastic inserts do not become mixed. If the components are not inscribed with their weights by the manufacturer, colored stains can be applied to avoid confusion. When the tubes are balanced, the buckets, trunnions and inserts should be included in the procedure; and care must be taken to ensure that the centers of gravity of the tubes are equidistant from the axis of rotation. To illustrate the importance of this, two identical tubes containing 20 g of mercury and 20 g of water respectively will balance perfectly on the scales; but their performance in motion is totally different, leading to violent vibration with all its attendant hazards (5).

10. Fill and open centrifuge tubes or trunnion cups in a Biological Safety Cabinet (10).

E. High-Speed Centrifuges (22)

1. In high-speed centrifuges the bowl is connected to a vacuum pump. If there is a breakage or accidental dispersion of infected particles the pump and the oil in it will become contaminated. A high efficiency filter should be placed between the centrifuge and the pump (8).

2. High speed rotor heads are prone to metal fatigue, and where there is a chance that they may be used on more than one machine each rotor should be accompanied by its own log book indicating the number of hours run at top or de-rated speeds. Failure to observe this precaution can result in dangerous and expensive disintegration. Frequent inspection, cleaning and drying are important to ensure absence of corrosion or other traumata which may lead to creeping cracks. Rubber O-rings and tube closures must be examined for deterioration and be kept lubricated with the material recommended by the makers. Where tubes of different materials are provided (e.g., celluloid, polypropylene, stainless steel), care must be taken that the tube closures designed specifically for the type of tube in use are employed. These caps are often similar in appearance, but are prone to leakage if applied to tubes of the wrong material. When properly designed tubes and rotors are well maintained and handled, leaking should never occur (5).

3. Cleaning and disinfection of tubes, rotors and other components requires considerable care. It is unfortunate that no single process is suitable for all items, and the various manufacturers' recommendations must be followed meticulously if fatigue, distortion and corrosion are to be avoided. This is not the place to catalogue recommended methods, but one less well appreciated fact is worthy of mention. Celluloid (cellulose nitrate) centrifuge tubes are not only highly inflammable and prone to shrinkage with age and distortion on boiling, but can be-

have as high explosive in an autoclave (5). Large-scale zonal centrifugation requires special attention (11).

F. Blenders, Ultrasonic Disintegrators, Colloid Mills, Ball Mills, Jet Mills, Grinders, Mortar and Pestle.

All these devices release considerable aerosols during their operation. For maximum protection to the operator during the blending of infectious materials, the following practices should be observed:

1. Operate blending and cell-disruption and grinding equipment in a Biological Safety Cabinet (9).

2. Use safety blenders designed to prevent leakage from the rotor bearing at the bottom of the bowl (9).

3. In the absence of a leak-proof rotor, inspect the rotor bearing at the bottom of the blender bowl for leakage prior to operation. Test it in a preliminary run with sterile saline or methylene blue solution prior to use with infected material (9).

4. Sterilize the device and residual infectious contents promptly after use. Use a towel moistened with disinfectant over the top of the blender (9).

5. Glass blender bowls are undesirable for use with infectious material because of potential breakage. If used, they should be covered with a polypropylene jar to prevent dispersal of glass (8).

6. A new machine, the Colworth Stomacker (England), in which material is homogenized in a plastic bag in a closed container, would appear to be safer than some of the other blenders (8).

7. A heat-sealed flexible plastic film enclosure for a grinder or blender can be used, but it must be opened in a Biological Safety Cabinet (7).

8. Blender bowls sometimes require supplemental cooling to prevent destruction of the bearings and to minimize thermal efforts on the product (7).

9. Before opening the safety blender bowl, permit the blender to rest for at least one minute to allow settling of the aerosol cloud.

10. Clinical or other laboratories handling human blood should be aware of the aerosols produced by the microhaematocrit centrifuge, the autoanalyzer stirrer, and the microtonometer, inasmuch as it seems that airborne transmission of infectious hepatitis may occur in the laboratory (20).

G. Miscellaneous Precautions and Recommendations

1. Water baths and Warburg baths used to inactive, incubate, or test infectious substances should contain a disinfectant. For cold water baths, 70% propylene glycol is recommended (4, 10).

2. Deepfreeze, liquid nitrogen, and dry ice chests and refrigerators should be checked and cleaned out periodically to remove any broken ampoules, tubes, etc., containing infectious material, and decontaminated. Use rubber gloves and respiratory protection during this cleaning. All infectious or toxic material stored in refrigerators or deepfreezes should be properly labelled. Security measures should be commensurate with the hazards (4, 10, 21).

3. Freeze-dried culture ampoules should always be opened in a Biological Safety Cabinet. The ampoule should be wrapped in a disinfectant-soaked swab before breaking it open to minimize the risk of cutting the hands, and to a lesser extent of releasing aerosol of dried material. Whenever possible, ampoules should be filled with dry nitrogen after freeze-drying, thus avoiding implosion that may occur during the sealing as well as opening of evacuated ampoules. The whole process of freeze-drying itself should be performed in a Biological Safety Cabinet. Filtration of the effluent air from the vacuum pump is desirable either up (preferably), or down stream of the pump (5).

4. Ensure that all virulent fluid cultures or viable powdered infectious materials in glass vessels are transported, incubated, and stored in easily handled, nonbreakable leakproof containers that are large enough to contain all the fluid or powder in case of leakage or breakage of the glass vessel (4, 10).

5. All inoculated petri plates or other inoculated solid media should be transported and incubated in leak-proof pans or leakproof containers (4, 10).

6. Care must be exercised in the use of membrane filters to obtain sterile filtrates of infectious materials. Because of the fragility of the membrane and other factors, such filtrates cannot be handled as noninfectious until culture or other tests have proved their sterility (4, 10).

7. Shaking machines should be examined carefully for potential breakage of flasks or other containers being shaken. Screw capped durable plastic or heavy walled glass flasks should be used. These should be securely fastened to the shaker platform. An additional precaution would be to enclose the flask in a plastic bag with or without an absorbent material.

8. No person should work alone on an extremely hazardous operation (4, 10).

IV. PERSONAL HYGIENE, HABITS, AND PRACTICES

Personal hygienic practices in the laboratory are directed, in most part, toward the prevention of occupationally acquired physical injury or disease. To a less obvious extent, they can raise the quality of the laboratory work by reducing the possibilities for contamination of experimental materials. The reasons for many of the recommended precautions and practices are obvious, but, in some instances, amplification will permit a better review of the applicability to any one specific laboratory.

Consequently, what might be forbidden in one laboratory might be only discouraged in another, and be permissible in a third. Nevertheless, adherence to safe practices that become habitual, even when seemingly not essential, provides a margin of safety in situations where the hazard is unrecognized. The history of occupational injury is replete with examples of hazards unrecognized until too late. The following guidelines, recommendations, and comments are presented with this in mind:

1. Food, candy, gum, and beverages for human consumption will be stored and consumed only outside the laboratory (5, 10).

2. Foot-operated drinking fountains should be the sole source of water for drinking by human occupants of the laboratory (27).

3. Smoking is not permitted in the laboratory or animal quarters. Cigarettes, pipes, and tobacco will be kept only in clean areas (5, 10, 26).

4. Shaving and brushing of teeth are not permitted in the laboratory. Razors, toothbrushes, toiletry supplies, and cosmetics are permissible only in clean change rooms or other clean areas, and should never be used until after showering or thorough washing of the face and hands (27).

5. A beard may be undesirable in the laboratory in the presence of actual or potential airborne contamination, because it retains particulate contamination more persistently than clean-shaven skin. A clean-shaven face is essential to the adequate facial fit of a face mask or respirator when the work requires respiratory protection (10, 27, 31).

6. Develop the habit of keeping hands away from mouth, nose, eyes, face, and hair. This may prevent self-inoculation (10, 27).

7. For product protection, persons with long hair should wear a suitable hair net or head cover that can be decontaminated. This has long been a requirements in hospital operating rooms and in the manufacture of biological pharmaceutical products. A head cover also will protect the hair from fluid splashes, from swinging into Bunsen flames and petri dishes, and will reduce facial contamination caused by habitual repetitive manual adjustment of the hair (5).

8. Long-flowing hair and loose-flapping clothing are dangerous in the presence of open flame or moving machinery. Rings and wrist watches also are a mechanical hazard during operation of some types of machines (5, 10).

9. Contact lenses do not provide eye protection. The capillary space between the contact lenses and the cornea may trap any material present on the surface of the eye. Caustic chemicals trapped in this space cannot be washed off the surface of the cornea. If the material in the eye is painful or the contact lens is displaced, muscle spasms will make it very difficult, if not impossible, to remove the lens. For this reason, contact lenses must not be worn by persons exposed to caustic chemicals unless safety glasses with side shields, goggles, or plastic face masks are also worn to provide full protection. It is the responsibility of supervisors to identify employees who wear contact lenses (25, 26).

10. Personal items, such as coats, hats, storm rubbers or overshoes, umbrellas, purses, etc., do not belong in the laboratory. These articles should be kept elsewhere (25).

11. Plants, cut flowers, an aquarium, and pets of any kind are undesirable sources of yeast, molds, and other potential microbial contaminants of biological experimental materials (25).

12. Books and journals returnable to the institutional library should be used only in the clean areas as much as possible (10, 27).

13. When change rooms with showers are provided, the employer should furnish skin lotion (27).

14. When employees are subject to potential occupational infection, the shower and/or face/hand-washing facilities should be provided with germicidal soap (8, 27).

15. Personal cloth handkerchiefs should not be used in the laboratory. Cleansing tissue should be available instead.

16. Hand washing for personal protection:

(i) This should be done promptly after removing protective gloves. Tests show it is not unusual for microbial or chemical contamination to be present despite use of gloves, due to unrecognized small holes, abrasions, tears, or entry at the wrist.

(ii) Throughout the day, at intervals dictated by the nature of the work, the hands should be washed. Presence of a wrist watch discourages adequate washing of the wrist (10, 25).

(iii) Hands should be washed after removing soiled protective clothing, before leaving laboratory area, before eating, and before smoking. The provision of hand cream by the employer encourages these practices (5, 8, 10).

(iv) A disinfectant wash or dip may be desirable in some cases, but its use must not be carried to the point of causing roughening, desiccation or sensitization of the skin.

17. Anyone with a fresh or healing cut, abrasion, or skin lesion should not work with infective material unless the injured area is completely protected (8, 25).

18. Persons vaccinated for smallpox may be shedders of vaccinia virus during the phase of cutaneous reaction. Therefore, vaccination requires permission of the appropriate supervisor, because two weeks' absence may be necessary before returning to work with

normal cell cultures or with susceptible animals, especially the normal mouse colony (25).

19. The surgeon's mask of gauze or filter paper is of little value for personal respiratory protection (29). It is designed to prevent escape of droplets from the nose or mouth (23G). If biohazards demand respiratory protection, then nothing but a full face respirator or ventilated hood will suffice. A half-mask respirator does not protect the eyes, which are an unevaluated avenue of infection through the conjunctiva and the nasolacrimal duct (5, 8).

20. Nonspecific contamination by environmental organisms from humans, animals, equipment, containers for specimens or supplies, and outside air is a complication that may affect or invalidate the results of an experiment. The human sources of this contamination are evaluated as follows:

(i) Sneezing, coughing and talking (23A, 24A). Sneezing, variously reported to generate as many 32,000 or 1,000,000 droplets below 100 microns in diameter; coughing, which produces fewer and larger droplets; and talking, which has been reported to average only 250 droplets when speaking 100 words, show great differences between persons in regard to the number of microorganisms aerosolized. As a general rule, it may be said that these actions by normal healthy persons may play a less important role in transmission or airborne infection to humans or experimental materials than does liberation of microorganisms from human skin.

(ii) Dispersal of bacteria from human skin. There is a tremendous variation in the number of bacteria shed from the skin by a clothed subject. For instance, in one study, the number varied from 6,000 to 60,000 per minute (23C). These bacteria were released on skin scales which were of a size that could penetrate the coarse fabric used for the laboratory and surgical clothing in the test (23D). Dispersal of skin bacteria was several times greater from below the waist than from upper parts of the body (24D). Effective reduction is accomplished by use of closely-woven or impervious clothing fitted tightly at the neck, wrists, and ankles to prevent the clothing from acting as a bellows that disperses air carrying skin scales laden with bacteria (23B). Such clothing sometimes is too warm to work in. It was found that a significant reduction in dispersal of bacteria occurred with the wearing of close-fitting and closely-woven underpants beneath the usual laboratory clothing (23D). The purpose of this summary is to alert laboratory personnel to the existence of this source of contamination (9).

(iii) Prolific dispersal of bacteria occurs from infected abrasions, small pustles, boils, and skin disease (23F, 24B). Washing the lesions with germicidal soap will greatly decrease the number of organisms on the skin and dispersal into the air. Healthy nasal carriers who generate aerosolized staphylococci usually can be identified by the presence of heavy contamination of their fingers, face, and hair (23E). This point may be useful in investigating the source of staphylococcal contamination of cell lines.

(iv) Footwear. In moderate and high risk situations, shoes reserved for only laboratory use have been recommended as a precaution against transporting spilled infectious agents outside the laboratory. However, in experiments during which reduction of potential contamination of experimental materials is important, laboratory-only shoes can reduce the microbial load brought into the laboratory each day by street shoes. Shoes are efficient transporters. In one study, there were 4 to 850 times as many bacteria per square centimeter on the laboratory footwear as on the floor itself (30).

V. CARE AND USE OF LABORATORY ANIMALS (10,32–37)

A. Care and Handling

1. Special attention must be given to the humane treatment of all laboratory animals in accordance with the Animal Welfare Act of 1970. The implementing rules and regulations appear in the Code of Federal Regulations (CFR) Title 9, Chapter 1, Subchapter A, parts 1, 2, 3. Recommended provisions and practices that meet the requirements of the Act have been published by the U.S. Public Health Service (32).

2. There are specific minimum requirements (33) concerning the caging, feeding, watering, and sanitation for dogs, cats, guinea pigs, hamsters, rabbits, and nonhuman primates. To meet these requirements, the animal room supervisor must have a copy of 9 CFR Chapter 1, Subchapter A, Parts 1, 2, 3.

3. Each laboratory should establish procedures to ensure the use of animals that are free of disease prejudicial to the proposed experiments and free from carriers of disease or vectors, such as ectoparasites, which endanger other experimental animals or personnel (10).

B. Cages Housing Infected Animals (10)

1. Careful handling procedures should be employed to minimize the dissemination of dust from cage refuse and animals.

2. Cages should be sterilized by autoclaving. Refuse, bowls and watering devices should remain in the cage during sterilization.

3. All watering devices should be of the "non-drip" type.

4. Cages should be examined each morning and at each feeding time so that dead animals can be removed.

5. Heavy gloves should be worn when feeding, watering, handling, or removing infected animals. Bare hands should NEVER be placed in the cage to move any object therein.

6. When animals are to be injected with biohazardous material, the animal caretaker should wear protective gloves and the laboratory workers should wear surgeons gloves. Animals should be properly restrained to avoid accidents that might result in disseminating biohazardous material, as well as to prevent injury to the animal and to personnel.

7. Animals exposed to biohazardous aerosols should be housed in ventilated cages, in gas-tight cabinet systems, or in rooms designed for protection of personnel by use of ventilated suits.

8. Animals inoculated by means other than by aerosols should be housed in equipment suitable for the level of risk involved.

9. Infected animals to be transferred between buildings should be placed in ventilated cages or other aerosol-proof containers.

10. The oversize canine teeth of large monkeys present a particular biting hazard; these are important in the potential transmission of naturally-occurring, and very dangerous, monkey virus infections. Such teeth should be blunted or surgically removed by a veterinarian.

11. Presently available epidemiological evidence indicates that infectious hepatitis may be transmitted from nonhuman primates (typically chimpanzees) to man. Newly imported animals may be naturally infected with this disease, and persons in close contact with such animals may become infected. After six months residence in this country, chimpanzees apparently no longer transmit the disease. A record should be maintained for each newly imported animal. A sign should be posted at rooms housing these animals to warn that the animals are potentially infectious.

C. General Guidelines that Apply to Animal Room Maintenance (10)

1. Doors to animal rooms should be kept closed at all times except for necessary entrance and exit.

2. Unauthorized persons should not be permitted to enter animal rooms.

3. A container of disinfectant should be kept in each animal room for disinfecting gloves and hands, and for general decontamination, even though no infectious animals are present. Hands, floors, walls, and cage racks should be washed with an approved disinfectant at the recommended strength as frequently as the supervisor directs.

4. Floor drains in animal rooms, as well as floor drains throughout the building should be flooded with water or dininfectant periodically to prevent backup of sewer gases.

5. Shavings or other refuse on floors should not be washed down the floor drain because such refuse clogs the sewer lines.

6. An insect and rodent control program should be maintained in all animal rooms and in animal food storage areas.

7. Special care should be taken to prevent live animals, especially mice, from finding their way into disposable trash.

D. Necropsy Rules for Infected Animals (10)

1. Necropsy of infected animals should be carried out by trained personnel in Biological Safety Cabinets with the hinged glass panel down. The glove port panel with or without attached gloves, and a respirator should be used at the discretion of the supervisor.

2. Surgeons gowns should be worn over laboratory clothing during necropsies.

3. Rubber gloves should be worn when performing necropsies.

4. The fur of the animal should be wetted with a suitable disinfectant.

5. Small animals should be pinned down or fastened on wood or metal in a metal tray.

6. Upon completion of necropsy, all potentially biohazardous material should be placed in suitable containers and sterilized immediately.

7. Contaminated instruments should be placed in a horizontal bath containing a suitable disinfectant.

8. The inside of the Biological Safety Cabinets and other potentially contaminated surfaces should be disinfected with a suitable germicide.

9. Grossly contaminated rubber gloves should be cleaned in disinfectant before removal from the hands, preparatory to sterilization.

10. Dead animals should be placed in proper leak-proof containers, autoclaved and properly tagged before being placed outside for removal and incineration.

VI. DECONTAMINATION AND DISPOSAL (7, 10, 38–42)

A. Introduction

Available date on the efficacy of various decontaminants for etiologic agents indicate that no major surprises will be forthcoming regarding the susceptibility of organisms containing recombinant DNA molecules. In the absence of adequate information, tests to determine the efficacy of candidate decontaminants should be conducted with the specific agent of interest. The goal of decontamination is not only the protection of personnel and the environment from exposure to infectious agents, but also the prevention of contamination of experimental materials by a variable, persistent, and unwanted background of microorganisms. This additional factor should be considered in selecting decontamination materials and methods.

B. Decontamination Methods

Physical and chemical means of decontamination fall into four main categories: Heat; Liquid Decontaminants; Vapors and Gases; and UV Radiation.

1. *Heat.* The application or heat, either moist or dry, is recommended as the most effective method of sterilization. Steam at 121 C under pressure in the autoclave is the most convenient method of rapidly achieving sterility. Dry heat at 160 to 170 C for periods to 2 to 4 hours is suitable for destruction of viable agents on impermeable nonorganic material such as glass, but is not reliable in even shallow layers of organic or inorganic material that can act as insulation. Incineration is another use of heat in the decontamination of microorganisms and also serves as an efficient means for disposal.

2. *Liquid Decontaminants.* In general, the liquid decotaminants find their most practical use in surface decontamination and, at sufficient concentration, as decontaminants of liquid wastes for final disposal in sanitary sewer systems.

There are many misconceptions concerning the use of liquid decontaminants. This is due largely to a characteristic capacity of such liquids to perform dramatically in the test tube and to fail miserably in a practical situation. Such failures often occur because proper consideration was not given to such factors as temperature, time of contact, pH, concentration, and the presence and state of dispersion, penetrability and reactivity of organic material at the site of application. Small variations in the above factors may make large differences in effectiveness of decontamination. For this reason, even when used under highly favorable conditions, complete reliance should not be placed on liquid decontanimants when the end result must be sterility.

There are many liquid decontaminants available under a wide variety of trade names. In general, these can be categorized as halogens, acids or alkalies, heavy metal salts, quaternary ammonium compounds, phenolic compounds, aldehydes, ketons, alcohols and amines. Unfortunately, the more active the decontaminant the more likely it is that the decontaminant will possess undesirable characteristics, such as the possession of corrosive propertie. None is equally useful or effective under all conditions.

3. *Vapors and Gases.* A variety of vapors and gases possess decontamination properties. The most useful of these are formaldehyde and ethylene oxide. When these can be employed in closed systems and under controlled conditions of temperature and humidity, excellent decontamination can result. Vapor and gas decontaminants are primarily useful in decontaminating: (i) Biological Safety Cabinets and associated effluent air-handling systems and air filters; (ii) bulky or stationary equipment that resists penetration by liquid surface decontaminants; (iii) instruments and optics that might be damaged by other decontamination methods; and (iv) rooms and buildings and associated airhandling systems.

4. *Radiation.* The usefulness of ultraviolet (UV) irradiation as a decontaminant is limited by its low penetrating power. No information is available regarding the effectiveness of UV irradiation for decontaminating microorganisms containing recombinant DNA molecules. Dependence on UV must be based on the results of experiments imitating particular anticipated environmental conditions and applications. Ultraviolet light is generally of limited application and is primarily useful in air locks and animal holding areas for controlling low levels of airborne contaminants.

No one procedure or material will solve all decontamination problems. The only method of assuring the efficacy of selected methodologies is to critically examine the results obtained in practical tests with the microorganism(s) of interest.

C. Laboratory Spills

A troublesome problem that may occur in the laboratory is the decontamination of an overt biological spill. The occurence of a spill poses less of a problem if it occurs in a Biological Safety Cabinet provided splattering to the outside of the cabinet does not occur. Direct application of concentrated liquid decontaminant and a thorough wipe down of the internal surfaces of such cabinetry will usually be effective for decontaminating the work ozne but gaseous decontaminants would be required to rid the interior sections of the cabinet of contaminants. Each researcher must realize that in the event of an overt accident, research materials such as tissue cultures, media, and animals within such cabinets may well be lost to the experiment.

The greater problem arises if the incident occurs in the open laboratory. All laboratory protocols should be designed to prevent such occurrences. The first action in the event of an overt laboratory spill is evacuation of the affected area to minimize the exposure of personnel involved. Next, the spill area must be isolated to prevent exposure of personnel and experimental materials beyond those involved in the immediate area of the spill. The procedures adopted must be rapidly effective and must not create additional aerosol or foster mechanical transfer of materials to unaffected areas. Personnel carrying out the procedures must be provided with protective clothing and equipment, including respiratory protection. Consideration must be given to the safe disposal of all materials and liquids resulting from cleanup procedures. Reentry of personnel to the area should be avoided until it can be reasonably established that the area has been effectively decontaminated. Further specific details are provided in Section VIII.

D. Disposal

Decontamination and disposal in infectious disease laboratories are closely interrelated acts in which decontamination constitutes the introductory phase of disposal. All materials and equipment used in research on recombinant DNA molecules will ultimately be disposed of; however, in the sense of daily use, only a portion of these will require actual removal from the laboratory complex or on-site destruction. The remainder will be recycled for use either within the same laboratory or in other laboratories that may or may not engage in DNA recombinant research. Examples of the latter that immediately come to mind are: reusable laboratory glassware, instruments used in necropsy of infected animals, and laboratory clothing. Disposal should therefore be interpreted in the broadest sense of the word, rather than in the restrictive sense of dealing solely with a destructive process.

The principal questions to be answered prior to disposal of any objects or materials from laboratories dealing with potentially infectious microorganisms or animal tissues are:

1. Have the objects or materials been effectively decontaminated by an approved procedure?

2. If not, have the objects or materials been packaged in an approved manner for immediate on-site incineration or transfer to another laboratory?

3. Does disposal of the decontaminated objects or materials involve any additional potential hazards, biological or otherwise, to personnel either:

(i) Those carrying out the immediate disposal procedures or

(ii) Those who might come into contact with the objects or materials outside the laboratory complex?

Laboratory materials requiring disposal will normally occur as liquid, solid, and animal room wastes. The volume of these can become a major problem when there is the requirement that all wastes be decontaminated prior to disposal. It is most evident that a significant portion of this problem can be eliminated if the kinds of materials initially entering the laboratory are reduced In any case, and wherever possible, materials not essential to the research should be retained in the nonresearch areas for disposal by conventional methods. Examples are the packaging materials in which goods are delivered, disposable carton-cages for transport of animals, and large carboys or tanks of fluids which can be left outside and drawn from as required. Reduction of this bulk will free autoclaves and other decontamination and disposal processes within the laboratory for the more rapid and efficient handling of materials known to be contaminated.

Inevitably, disposal of materials raises the question, "How can we be sure that the materials have been treated adequately to assure that their disposal does not constitute a hazard?" In the small laboratory, the problem is often solved by requiring that each investigator decontaminate all contaminated materials not of immediate use at the end of each day and place them in suitable containers for routine disposal. In larger laboratories where the mass of materials for disposal becomes much greater and sterilization and decontamination bottlenecks occur, materials handling and disposal will likely be the chore of personnel not engaged in the actual research. In either situation, a case can be made for establishing a positive method of designating the state of materials to be disposed of. This may consist of a tagging system stating that the materials are either sterile or contaminated.

Disposal of materials from the laboratory and animal holding areas will be required for research projects ranging in size from an individual researcher to those involving large numbers of researchers of many disciplines. Procedures and facilities to accomplish this will range from the simplest to the most elaborate. The primary consideration in any of these is to dispel the notion that laboratory wastes can be disposed of in the same manner and with as little thought as household wastes. Selection and enforcement of safe procedures for disposal of laboratory materials are of no less importance than the consideration given to any other methodology for the accomplishment of research objectives.

Materials of dissimilar nature will be common in laboratories studying recombinant DNA molecules. Examples are combinations of common flammable solvents, chemical carcinogens, radioactive isotopes, and concentrated viruses or nucleic acids. These may require input from a number of disciplines in arriving at the most practical approach for their decontamination.

E. Characteristics of Chemical Decontaminants in Common Use in Laboratory Operations

Every person actively working with viable microorganisms, no matter how remote the field of specialization, will, from time to time, find it necessary to decontaminate by chemical methods work areas and materials, equipment, and specialized instruments. Chemical decontamination is necessary because the use of pressurized steam, the most rapid and reliable method of sterilization, is not normally feasible for decontaminating large spaces, surfaces, and stationary equipment. Moreover, high temperatures and moisture often damage delicate instruments,

particularly those having complex optical and electronic components.

Chemicals with decontaminant properties are, for the most part, available as powders, crystals, and liquid concentrates. These may be added to tap water for application as surface decontaminants, and some, when added in sufficient quantity, find use as decontaminants of bulk liquid wastes. Chemical decontaminants that are gaseous at room temperatures are useful as space-penetrating decontaminants. Others become gases at reasonably elevated temperatures and can act as either aqueous surface or gaseous space-penetrating decontaminants.

Inactivation of microorganisms by chemical decontaminants may occur in one or more of the following ways:

1. Coagulation and denaturation of protein.
2. Lysis.
3. Binding to enzymes, or inactivation of an essential enzyme by either oxidation, binding, or destruction of enzyme substrate.

The relative resistance to the action of chemical decontaminants can be substantially altered by such factors as: concentration of active ingredient, duration of contact, pH, temperature, humidity, and presence of extrinsic organic matter. Depending upon how these factors are manipulated, the degree of success achieved with chemical decontaminants may range from minimal inactivation of target microorganisms to an indicated sterility within the limits of sensitivity of the assay systems employed.

There are dozens of decontaminants available under a wide variety of trade names. In general, these decontaminants can be classified as halogens, acids or alkalies, heavy metal salts, quaternary ammonium compounds, phenolic compounds, aldehydes, ketones, alcohols, and amines. Unfortunately, the more active the decontaminant the more likely it will possess undesirable characteristics. For example, peracetic acid is a fast-acting, universal decontaminant. However, in the concentrated state it is a hazardous compound that can readily decompose with explosive violence. When diluted for use, it has a short half-life, produces strong, pungent, irritating odors, and is extremely corrosive to metals. Nevertheless, it is such an outstanding decontaminant that it is commonly used in germ-free animal studies despite these undesirable characteristics.

The halogens are probably the second most active group of decontaminants. Chlorine, iodine, bromine, and fluorine will rapidly kill bacterial spores, viruses, rickettsiae, and fungi. These decontaminants are effective over a wide range of temperatures. In fact, chlorine has been shown to be effective at −40 F. (On the other hand, phenols and formaldehyde have high temperature coefficients). The halogens have several undesirable features. They readily combine with protein, so that an excess of the halogen must be used if proteins are present. Also, the halogens are relatively unstable so that fresh solutions must be prepared at frequent intervals. Finally, the halogens corrode metals. A number of manufacturers of decontaminants have treated the halogens to remove some of the undesirable features. For example, sodium hypochlorite reacts with p-toluenesulfonamide to form Chloramine T, and iodine reacts with certain surface-active agents to form the popular iodophors. These "tamed" halogens are stable, non-toxic, odorless, and relatively noncorrosive to metals. However, the halogens are highly reactive elements, and, because they are reactive they are good germicides. When a halogen acts as a decontaminant, free halogen is the effective agent. Rising the pH or combining the halogen with other compounds to decrease the corrosive effect will also decrease the germicidal power. A trade-off situation occurs.

Ineffectiveness of a decontaminant is due primarily to the failure of the decontaminant to contact the microorganisms rather than failure of the decontaminant to act. If one places an item in a liquid decontaminant, one can see that the item is covered with tiny bubbles. Of course, the area under the bubbles is dry, and microorganisms in these dry areas will not be affected by the decontaminant. Also, if there are spots of grease, rust or dirt on the object, microorganisms under these protective coatings will not be contacted by the decontaminant. Scrubbing an item when immersed in a decontaminant is helpful, and a decontaminant should have, and most do have, incorporated surface-active agents.

F. Properties of Some Common Decontaminants

1. *Alcohol.* Ethyl or isopropyl alcohol in a concentration of 70–85% by weight is often used. Alcohols denature proteins and are somewhat slow in their germicidal action. However, they are effective decontaminants against lipid-containing viruses.

2. *Ether and Chloroform.* These compounds are not ordinarily used as decontaminants, but they do demonstrate the fact that lipid-containing viruses are inactivated by these organic solvents, whereas non-lipid-containing viruses are quite resistant.

3. *Formaldehyde.* Formaldehyde for use as a decontaminant is usually marketed as a solution of about 37% concentration referred to as formalin or as a solid polymerized compound called paraformaldehyde. Formaldehyde in a concentration of 5% active ingredient is an effective liquid decontaminant. It loses considerable activity at refrigeration temperatures and the pungent, irritating odors make formaldehyde solutions difficult to use in the laboratory. Formaldehyde vapor generated from formaldehyde solution is an effective space decontaminant for decontaminating rooms or buildings, but in the vapor state with water it tends to polymerize out on surfaces to form paraformaldehyde, which is persistent and unpleasant. Formaldehyde gas can be liberated by heating paraformaldehyde to depolymerize it. In the absence of high moisture content in the air, formaldehyde released in the gaseous state forms less polymerized residues on surfaces and less time is required to clear treated areas of fumes than formaldehyde released in the vapor state.

4. *Phenol.* Phenol itself is not often used as a decontaminant. The odor is somewhat unpleasant and a sticky, gummy residue remains on treated surfaces. This is especially true during steam sterilization. Although phenol itself may not be in widespread use, phenol homologs and phenolic compounds are basic to a number of popular decontaminants. The phenolic compounds are effective decontaminants against some viruses, rickettsiae, fungi and vegetative bacteria. The phenolics are not effective in ordinary usage against bacterial spores.

5. *Quaternary Ammonium Compounds or Quats.* After 30 years of testing and use, there is still a considerable controversy about the efficacy of the Quats as decontaminants. These cationic detergents are strongly surface-active and are effective against lipid-containing viruses. The Quats will attach to protein so that dilute solutions of Quats will quickly lose effectiveness in the presence of proteins. The Quats tend to clump microorganisms and are neutralized by anionic detergents, such as soap. The Quats have the advantages of being nontoxic, odorless, nonstaining, noncorrosive to metals, stable, and inexpensive.

6. *Chlorine.* This halogen is a universal decontaminant active against all microorganisms, including bacterial spores. Chlorine combines with protein and rapidly decreases in concentration in its presence. Free, available chlorine is an active element. It is a strong oxidizing agent, corrosive to metals. Chlorine solutions will gradually lose strength so that fresh solutions must be prepared frequently. Sodium hypochlorite is usually used as a base for chlorine decontaminants. An excellent decontaminant can be prepared from household or laundry bleach. These bleaches usually contain 5.25 percent available chlorine or 52,500 ppm. If one dilutes them to 1 to 100, the solution will contain 525 ppm of available chlorine, and, if a nonionic detergent such as Naccanol is added in a concentration of about 0.7 percent, a very good decontaminant is created.

7. *Iodine.* The characteristics of chlorine and iodine are similar. One of the most popular groups of decontaminants used in the laboratory is the iodophors, and Wescodyne is perhaps the most popular. The range of dilution of Wescodyne recommended by the manufacturer is 1 oz. in 5 gal. of water giving 25 ppm of available iodine to 3 oz. in 5 gal. giving 775 ppm. At 75 ppm, the concentration of free iodine is .0075 percent. This small amount can be rapidly taken up by any extraneous protein present. Clean surfaces or clear water can be effectively treated by 75 ppm available iodine, but difficulties may be experienced if any appreciable amount of protein is present. For bacterial spores, a dilution of 1 to 40 giving 750 ppm is recommended by the manufacturer. For washing the hands, it is recommended that Wescodyne be diluted 1 to 10 or 10% in 50% ethyl alcohol (a reasonably good decontaminant itself) which will give 1,600 ppm of available iodine, at which concentration relatively rapid inactivation of any and all microorganisms will occur.

G. Vapors and Gases

The use of formaldehyde as a vapor or gas has already been discussed. Other chemical decontaminants which have been used this way included ethylene oxide, peracetic acid, beta-propiolactone (BPL), methyl bromide, and ethylene amine. When these can be used in closed systems and under controlled conditions of temperature and humidity, excellent decontamination can be obtained. Residues from ethylene oxide must be removed by aeration; but otherwise it is convenient to use, versatile, and noncorrosive. Peracetic acid is corrosive for metals and rubber. BPL in the vapor form acts rapidly against bacteria, rickettsiae, and viruses. It has a half-life of 3.5 hours when mixed with water, is easily neutralized with water, and lends itself to removal by aeration. The National Institutes of Health does not recommend BPL as a decontaminant because it has been identified as a suspect carcinogen.

H. Residual Action of Decontaminants

As noted in the preceding discussion of decontaminant properties, many of the chemical decontaminants often have residual properties that may be considered a desirable feature in terms of aiding in the control of background contamination. One is cautioned, however, to consider residual properties carefully. Ethylene oxide used to sterilize laboratory shoes can leave residues which cause skin irritation. Animal cell cultures, as well as viruses of interest, are also inhibited or inactivated by the decontaminants persisting after routine cleaning procedures. Therefore, reusable items that are routinely held in liquid decontaminant prior to autoclaving and cleaning should receive particular attention in rinse cycles. Similarly, during general area decontamination with gases or vapors, it may be necessary to protect new and used clean items by removing them from the area or by enclosing

them in gastight bags or by insuring adequate aeration following decontamination.

I. Selecting Chemical Decontaminants for Research on Recombinant DNA Molecules

No single chemical decontaminant or method will be effective or practical for all situations in which decontamination is required. Selection of chemical decontaminants and procedures must be preceded by practical consideration of the purposes for the decontamination and the interacting factors that will ultimately determine how that purpose is to be achieved. Selection of any given procedure will be influenced by the information derived from answers to the following questions:

1. What is the target microorganism(s)?
2. What decontaminants in what form are known to, or can be expected to, inactivate the target microorganisms(s)?
3. What degree of inactivation is required?
4. In what menstruum is the microorganism suspended; i.e., simple or complex, on solid or porous surfaces, and/or airborne?
5. What is the highest concentration of cells anticipated to be encountered?
6. Can the decontaminant either as an aqueous solution, a vapor, or a gas reasonably be expected to contact the microorganisms, and can effective duration of contact be maintained?
7. What restrictions apply with respect to compatibility of materials?
8. Does the anticipated use situation require immediate availability of an effective concentration of the decontaminant or will sufficient time be available for preparation of the working concentration shortly before its anticipated use?

The primary target of decontamination in the infectious disease laboratory is the microorganism under active investigation. Laboratory preparations or infectious agents usually have titers grossly in excess of those normally observed in nature. The decontamination of these high-titer materials presents certain problems. Maintenance systems for bacteria or viruses are specifically selected to preserve viability of the agent. Agar, proteinaceous nutrients, and cellular materials can be extremely effective in physically retarding or chemically binding active moieties of chemical decontaminants. Such interferences with the desired action of decontaminants may require the use of decontaminant concentrations and contact times in excess of those shown to be effective in the test tube. Similarly, a major portion of decontaminant contact time required to achieve a given level of agent inactivation may be expended in inactivating a relatively small number of the more resistant members of the population. The current state of the art provides little information on which to predict the probable virulence of these survivors. These problems are, however, common to all potentially pathogenic agents and must always be considered in selecting decontaminants and procedures for their use.

Microorganisms exhibit a range of resistance to chemical decontaminants. In terms of practical decontamination, most vegetative bacteria, fungi and lipid-containing viruses, are relatively susceptible to chemical decontamination. The non-lipid-containing viruses and bacteria with a waxy coating such as tubercle bacillus occupy a mid-range of resistance. Spore forms are the most resistant.

A decontaminant selected on the basis of its effectiveness against microorganisms on any range of the resistance scale will be effective against microorganisms lower on the scale. Therefore, if decontaminants that effectively control spore forms are selected for routine laboratory decontamination, it can be assumed that any other microorganisms generated by laboratory operations, even in high concentrations, would also be inactivated.

An additional area that must be considered and for which there is little definitive information available is the "inactivation" of nucleic acid. Nucleic acids often have better survival characteristics under adverse conditions than do the intact virions and cells from which they were derived. Strong oxidizers, strong acids and bases, and either gaseous or aqueous formaldehyde should react readily with nucleic acids. Their ability to destroy the nucleic acid being studied, however, should be confirmed in the experimenter's laboratory. Because of innate differences in the chemistry of RNA and DNA the effectiveness of a decontaminant for one cannot be extrapolated to the other. For example, RNA molecules are susceptible to mild alkaline hydrolysis by virtue of the free hydroxyl group in the 2' position, whereas DNA molecules are not susceptible to mild alkaline hydrolysis.

Table II summarizes pertinent characteristics and potential applications for several categories of chemical decontaminants most likely to be used in the biological laboratory. Practical concentrations and contact times that may differ markedly from the recommendations of manufacturers of proprietary products are suggested. It has been assumed that microorganisms will be afforded a high degree of potential protection by organic menstruums. It has not been assumed that a sterile state will result from application of the indicated concentrations and contact times. It should be emphasized that these data are only indicative of efficacy under artificial test conditions. The efficacy of any of the decontaminants should be conclusively determined by individual investigators. It is readily evident that each of the decontaminants has a range of advantages and disadvantages as well as a range of potential for inactivation of a diverse microflora. Equally evident is the need for compromise as an alternative to maintaining a veritable "drug store" of decontaminants.

APPENDIX B

TABLE II

SUMMARY OF PRACTICAL DECONTAMINANTS FOR USE IN THE LABORATORY

DECONTAMINANTS		PRACTICAL REQUIREMENTS					INACTIVATES					IMPORTANT CHARACTERISTICS													POTENTIAL APPLICATION										PROPRIETARY DECONTAMINANTS EXAMPLES [4]
TYPE	CATEGORY	CONCENTRATION ACTIVE INGREDIENT	CONTACT TIME (Minutes) LIPO VIRUS (MIN.)	CONTACT TIME (Minutes) BROAD SPECTRUM	TEMP. °C	REL. HUMID. %	VEG. BACT.	LIPO VIRUS	HYDROPHILIC VIRUS	BACT. SPORES	EFFECTIVE SHELF LIFE > 1 WEEK	CORROSIVE	FLAMMABLE	EXPLOSION POTENTIAL	RESIDUE	INACTIVATED BY ORGANIC MATTER	LESS COMPATIBLE [7]	ELECTRONICS COMPATIBLE	SKIN IRRITANT	EYE IRRITANT	RESPIRATORY IRRITANT	TOXIC [5]	WORK SURFACES	DIRTY GLASSWARE	LARGE AREA DECON.	AIR HANDLING SYSTEMS	PORTABLE EQUIP. SURFACE DECON.	PORTABLE EQUIP. PENETRATING DECON.	STATIONARY EQUIP. SURFACE DECON.	STATIONARY EQUIP. PENETRATING DECON.	LENSES & ELECTRONIC INSTRUMENTS	LIQUIDS FOR DISCARD	BOOKS, PAPERS	
LIQUID	Quat. Ammon. CPDS	2%	10	M.E.			+	+			+					+	+		+	+		+	✓	✓			✓		✓					A-33, CDQ, EMD-BAC, HI-TOR, NIBRO-QUAT
	Phenolic CPDS	2%	10	M.E.			+	+	1		+	+			+		·		+	+		+	✓	✓			✓		✓					HYC-PHENE, MATAR, NIBRO-BAC, O-SYL
	Chlorine CPDS	3%	10	30			+	+	+	+		+			+	+			+	+	+	+	✓	✓			✓		✓			✓		CHLORAMINE T, CLOROX, PUREX
	Iodophor	2%	10	30			+	+	+	+	+	+			+	+			+	+		+	✓	✓			✓		✓			•		HI-STAT, IOPHOR, NIBROMINE, NIBROSTAT
	Alcohol, Ethyl	85%	10	M.E.			+	+	1		+		+							+	·	+	✓	✓			✓		✓					
	Alcohol, Isopropyl	85%	10	M.E.			+	+	1		+		+							+		+	✓	✓			✓		✓					
	Formaldehyde	8%	10	30			+	+	+	+	+				+				?	+		+	✓	✓			✓		✓					STERAC
	Glutaraldehyde	2%	10	30			+	+	+	+	+				+		+		+	+		+	✓	✓			✓		✓					CIDEX
GAS	Ethylene Oxide	.45g/l	60	60	37	30	+	+	+	+	N.A.		+ [2]	+ [2]			+	+	+	+	+	+					✓			✓			✓	CARBOXIDE, CYROXICIDE, STERICIDE
	Paraformaldehyde	.3g/ft³	60	60	+ 23	+ 60	+	+	+	+	N.A.		+ [3]	+ [3]			+	+	+	+	+	+				✓	✓		✓		✓	✓		

N.A. = Not applicable — M.E. = Not effective
1. Variable results dependent on virus.
2. Neither flammable or explosive in 90% CO_2 or fluorinate hydrocarbon use form.
3. At concentrations of 7 to 73% by volume in air, solid-exposure to open flame.
4. Protected from light and air.
5. By skin or mouth or both - refer to manufacturer's literature and/or Merck Index.
6. Space limitations preclude listing all products available. Individual listings (or omissions) do not imply endorsement or rejection of any product by the NIH.
7. Refers to microscope and camera lenses.

VII. HOUSEKEEPING

A. Introduction

Well-defined housekeeping procedures and schedules are essential in reducing the risks of working with etiologic agents and in protecting the integrity of the research program. This is particularly true in the biological laboratory operating under less than total containment concepts and in all areas used for the housing of animals, whether or not they have been intentionally infected. A well-conceived and well-executed housekeeping program limits physical clutter that could distract the attention and interfere with the activities of laboratory personnel at a critical moment in a potentially hazardous procedure, provides a work area that will not in itself be a source of physical injury or contamination, and provides an area that promotes the efficient use of decontaminants in the event of the inadvertent release of a harmful agent. Less immediately evident are the benefits of establishing, among personnel of widely varying levels of education, an appreciation of the nature and sources of biological contamination.

Housekeeping is an omnibus term that can be interpreted as broadly or as narrowly as one chooses. It can be seen that many of the

procedures found under special headings, such as decontamination, disposal, and animal care, are, in reality, specific instructions for safely accomplishing otherwise routine housekeeping chores. In these safety suggestions for research on recombinant DNA molecules, it has been elected to address specifically only tasks of a janitorial nature under the subject of housekeeping.

The objectives of housekeeping in the biological laboratory are to:

1. Provide an orderly work area conducive to the accomplishment of the research program.

2. Provide work areas devoid of physical hazards.

3. Provide a clean work area with background contamination ideally held to a zero level but more realistically to a level such that extraordinary measures in sterile techniques are not required to maintain integrity of the biological systems being researched.

4. Prevent the accumulation of materials from current and past experiments that constitute a hazard to laboratory personnel.

5. Prevent the creation of aerosols of hazardous materials as a result of the housekeeping procedures used.

Procedures developed in the area of housekeeping should be based on the highest level of risk to which the personnel and integrity of the experiments will be subject. Such an approach avoids the confusion of multiple practices and retraining of personnel. The primary function, then, of routine housekeeping procedures is to prevent the accumulation of organic debris that (i) may harbor microorganisms that are a potential threat to the integrity of the biological systems under investigation, (ii) may enhance the survival of microorganisms inadvertently released in experimental procedures, (iii) may retard penetration of decontaminants, (iv) may be transferable from one area to another on clothing and shoes, (v) may, with sufficent buildup, become a biohazard as a consequence of secondary aerosolization by personnel and air movement, and (vi) may cause allergenic sensitization of personnel, e.g., to animal danders.

Housekeeping in animal care units has the same primary function as that stated for the laboratory and should, in addition, be as meticulously carried out in quarantine and conditioning areas as in areas used to house experimentally infected animals. No other areas in the laboratory have the constant potential for creation of significant quantities of contaminated organic debris than do animal care facilities.

In all laboratories, efforts to achieve total decontamination and to conduct a major cleanup of the biological complex are normally undertaken at relatively long time intervals. Routine housekeeping must be relied on to provide a work area free of significant sources of background contamination. The provision of such a work area is not simply a matter of indicating in a general way what has to be done, who will do it, and how often. The supervisor must view each task critically in terms of the potential biohazard involved, decide on a detailed procedure for its accomplishment, and provide instructions to laboratory personnel in a manner that minimizes the opportunity for misunderstanding.

The following checklist outlines a portion of the items requiring critical review by the laboratory supervisor. It is not intended to be complete but is presented as an example of the detailed manner in which housekeeping in the biological laboratory complex must be viewed.

Administration Areas
Aisles
Animal Food Storage
Animal Bedding Storage
Biological Safety Cabinets
Bench Tops and Other Work Surfaces
Ceilings
Change Rooms
Cleaning Solution Disposal
Cages and Cage Racks
Dry Ice Chests
Deep Freeze Chests
Entry and Exit Ways
Equipment Storage
Floors
Glassware
General Laboratory Equipment Cleanup
Hallways
Incubators
Instruments
Insect and Rodent Control
Light Fixtures
Mechanical Equipment Areas
Mops
Pipes—Wall and Ceiling Hung
Refrigerators
Showers
Supply Storage
UV Lamps
Vacuum Cleaners
Waste Accumulations
Waste Water Disposal
Others

Housekeeping in the laboratory is one of the avenues that leads to accomplishing the research program safely. It is important that housekeeping tasks be assigned to personnel who are knowledgeable of the research program and special hazards of the research environment. The recommended approach to housekeeping is the assignment of housekeeping tasks to the research teams on an individual basis for their immediate work areas and on a cooperative basis for areas of common usage. Similarly, animal caretaker personnel should be responsible for housekeeping in animal care areas. The laboratory supervisor must determine the frequency with which the individual and cooperative housekeeping chores need be accomplished. He should provide schedules and perform frequent inspection to assure compliance. This approach assures that research work flow patterns will not be interrupted by an alien cleanup crew, delicate laboratory equipment will be handled only by those most knowledgeable of its particular requirements, and the location of concentrated biological preparations and contaminated equipment used in their preparation and application will be known.

B. Floor Care

Avoidance of dry sweeping and dusting will reduce the formation of nonspecific environmental aerosols. Wet mopping or vacuum cleaning with a high-efficiency particulate air (HEPA) filter on the exhaust is recommended.

Careful consideration must be given to design and quality in the selection of cleaning equipment and materials and in their use to prevent the substitution of one hazard for another.

In the absence of overt hazardous spills, the cleaning process commonly will consist of an initial vacuuming to remove all gross particulate matter and a follow-up wet mopping with a solution of chemical decontaminant containing a detergent. Depending on the nature of the surfaces to be cleaned and availability of floor drains, removal of residual cleaning solutions can be accomplished by a number of methods. Among these are: pickup with a partially dry mop, pickup with a wet vacuum that has an adequately filtered exhaust, or removal to a convenient floor drain by use of a floor squeegee.

After cleaning up a spill of infected material, the residual solution should not be discharged to a sanitary sewer until it has been autoclaved or given further chemical treatment, such as by the addition of sodium hypochlorite sufficient to provide a final concentration of 500 ppm chlorine. Most household bleaches are marketed with a chlorine content of 5.25%. These in a final dilution of 1:100, yield 525 ppm of available chlorine. After allowing a contact time of 15 minutes, these solutions may be flushed down any available drain. Chlorine solutions in these high concentrations may be too corrosive for general application to floors and equipment. In any event, if solutions are used in this way, after the contact time the area should be rinsed with water.

C. Dry Sweeping

While it is recommended that dry sweeping be minimized, this may be the only method available or practicable under certain circumstances. In such cases, sweeping compounds used with push brooms and dry-dust mop heads treated to suppress aerosolization of dust should be used.

Sweeping compounds available from the usual janitorial supply firms fall in three categories:

Wax-based compounds used on vinyl floors and waxed floor coverings.

Oil-based compounds for concrete floors.

Oil-based compounds with abrasives (such as sand) to achieve a dry scouring action where much soil is present.

Dry-dust mop heads can be purchased as treated disposable units or as reusable, washable heads that must be treated with appropriate sprays or by other means to improve their dust-capturing property.

D. Vacuum Cleaning

In the absence of a HEPA filter on the exhaust, the usual wet and dry industrial-type vacuum cleaner is a potent aerosol generator. The HEPA-filtered exhaust used in conjunction with a well-sealed vacuum unit, however, can negate this factor because of its ability to pass large volumes of exhaust air while retaining particles with a minimum efficiency of 99.97%. Wet and dry units incorporating a HEPA filter on the exhaust are available from a number of manufacturers.

There are no particular requirements with respect to the manner in which the dry vacuuming is accomplished other than to emphasize that the objective is to remove all debris and particulate matter. The manufacturer's directions adequately detail the frequency of bag changes, filter changes, and mechanical adjustments.

Dry material vacuum-collected during these floor-cleaning activities is potentially contaminated, but the nature of the risk is probably greater to the experiment than to the experimenter. It is wise to effect bag and filter changes and to clean out collection tanks in a manner that will avoid or minimize aerosolizing the contents of the vacuum cleaner.

A vacuum machine that collects debris in a disposable bag is preferable to machines that collect the major debris in a tank and on an exposed primary filter. Even though it may serve as a primary filter, the disposable bag must be removed with caution. A bellows effect may pump dust out of the bag if its intake opening is not sealed before moving it to a plastic bag for transfer out of the area. In any event, the outer surface of the disposable bag will probably bear some dust contamination, which also may occur on inner surfaces of the machine.

To avoid contaminating experimental materials, the emptying of vacuum collection tanks and changing of bags and filters are best done away from the immediate laboratory area, for example, in a small area that can be easily cleaned afterwards. The use of heavy rubber gloves is recommended when

removing wastes from tanks in case broken glass is present. After making the filter changes, all external surfaces of the immediate work area and the equipment should be wiped with a cloth moistened in decontaminant. The operator might plan for a change of laboratory clothing afterwards so as to minimize carrying contamination into other areas of the laboratory.

Avoid use of dry vacuum cleaning equipment in work with high risk agents in the open laboratory. Should it be necessary to use it, it is recommended that gaseous sterilization be used to minimize aerosolization of microorganisms before waste is emptied from the vacuum container. Because complete penetration of sterilizing gases into the collected dry dust may be a problem, all wastes should be placed in a plastic bag, which then is tightly closed and incinerated or disposed of in an approved manner.

When dry vacuum cleaning equipment has been used within a gastight safety cabinet system, it can be treated in an attached double-door carboxyclave (an autoclave equipped with an ethylene oxide gas sterilization system) to allow for removal and emptying of the collection tank.

If a wet vacuum is to be used for pickup of the detergent-germicide solution from the floor, the manufacturer's recommendations on filter life should be followed. In addition, the operation of the vacuum should be closely observed for evidence of operating changing indicating restricted airflow or, conversely, increased flow indicating filter failure. Liquids collected in the vacuum cleaner after floor mopping will contain decontaminant material. These liquids may be poured down a convenient floor drain, except in the case of cleanup wastes from an overt spill. The collected liquid should then be autoclaved or treated with chlorine solution before disposal.

Provisions should be made for regular decontamination of the entire vacuum cleaner with formaldehyde gas or vapor, or ethylene oxide. This should be done after use if the vacuum is used in any manner for cleanup of overt spills of infectious material.

E. Selection of a Cleaning Solution

The selection of a detergent-decontaminant combination for routine cleaning of the laboratory complex should be based on the requirements of the area of greatest potential for contamination by the widest spectrum of microorganisms. With rare exception, this will be identified as the animal holding area and the expected microorganisms. With rare exception, this will be identified as the animal holding area and the expected microorganisms may well include fungi, viruses, and the vegetative and spore forms of bacteria. A decontaminating solution for such a range of microorganisms would, however, be expensive and excessively corrosive for routine use. Except in those rare instances where it can be assumed that pathogenic spores are being shed by laboratory animals, the risks from the spores are more likely to affect the experiments than the personnel. The spores tend to be associated with organic debris from bedding and food, thus offering potential for removal or at least a large initial reduction in their numbers by vacuum cleaning. A wide range of cleaning solutions that are mildly sporicidal, reasonably residual, and are not destructive to the physical plant are available. Phenol derivatives in combination with a detergent have these characteristics and have been selected for routine use in a number of research facilities. There are numerous detergent-phenolic combinations available on the market. The phenols are one type of a broad spectrum of biocidal substances that includes the mercurials, quaternary ammonium compounds, chloride compounds, iodophores, alcohols, formaldehyde, glutaraldehyde, and combinations of alcohol with either iodine or formaldehyde. These have been discussed in Section VI.

The laboratory supervisor should make a selection from those types most readily available which meet the general criteria of effectiveness, residual properties, and low corrosiveness.

F. Wet Mopping—Two-Bucket Method

Wet mopping of floors in laboratory and animal care areas is, from a safety standpoint, most conveniently and efficiently accomplished using a two-bucket system. The principal feature of such a system is that fresh detergent-decontaminant solution is always applied to the floor from one bucket, while all spent cleaning solution wrung from the mop is collected in the second bucket. Compact dolly-mounted double-bucket units with foot-operated wringers are available from most janitorial supply houses. A freshly laundered mop head of the cotton string type should be used daily. This requires that a mop with removable head be provided as opposed to a fixed-head type. In practice, the mop is saturated with fresh solution, very lightly wrung into the second bucket and applied to the floor using a figure eight motion of the mop head. After every four or five strokes, the mop head is turned over and the process continued until an area of approximately 100 ft^2 has been covered. After allowing a contact time of five minutes, the solution is removed with either a wet vacuum cleaner with HEPA-filtered exhaust or with the wrung-out mop. The mopping is continued in 100 ft^2 increments until the total floor area has been covered. Floor-cleaning procedures are most effectively completed after the majority of the work force has departed and should progress from areas of least potential contamination to those of greatest potential. Before a mop head is sent to a laundry, it should be autoclaved. Spent cleaning fluids are disposed of by flushing down the drain.

If the cleanup follows an overt spill of infectious material, the spent cleaning solution, after removal from the floor, should be autoclaved or treated with chlorine solution. Chlorine (as household bleach) should be added to give 500 ppm and held for a contact time of 15 minutes before dumping in the sanitary sewer.

G. Alternative Floor Cleaning Method for Animal Care Areas and Areas with Monolithic Floors

The absence of permanently placed laboratory benches and fixed equipment, coupled with the mobility of modern cage racks, makes possible alternate floor-cleaning procedures in animal care facilities. As in all considerations of methodologies in biomedical laboratory facilities, it is necessary to assess the compatibility of procedures and facilities from the hazard point of view. The alternative floor-cleaning procedure to be discussed requires that floors are completely sealed or of monolithic construction so that liquid leakage to adjacent areas does not occur and that floor drains or wet vacuum cleaners are available.

Subsequent to the removal of all debris by dry vacuum, move the cage racks to one side of the room. Cover the floor of the remaining cleared portion of the room with detergent-decontaminant solution applied at a rate of approximately one gallon per 144 ft^2 from a one-gallon tank sprayer, using a setting of the nozzle which will cause the solution to flow on and not create a spray. The nozzle is placed close to the floor. Allow a fifteen-minute contact period; then push the cleaning solution to the floor drain with a large floor squeegee or pick it up with a wet vacuum. Allow the flow to air dry; move the cage racks into the cleaned area, and repeat the process for the remaining floor area. Floor drains in these areas should be rim-flush, at least six inches in diameter, and fitted with a screen or porous trap bucket to catch large debris that escapes the initial dry cleaning. Such screens and baskets should be emptied after treatment with a decontaminant. If space utilization does not require frequent floor washdown, pour a half-gallon of detergent-decontaminant solution into the drain each week to keep the trap in the waste line filled against backup of sewer gases.

VIII. CLEAN-UP OF BIOHAZARDOUS SPILLS (8, 9, 10)

A. Biohazards Spill in a Biological Safety Cabinet

Chemical decontamination procedures should be initiated at once while the cabinet continues to operate to prevent escape of contaminants from the cabinet.

1. Spray or wipe walls, work surfaces, and equipment with a 2% solution of an iodophor-decontaminant (Wescodyne or equivalent). A decontaminant detergent has the advantage of detergent activity, which is important because extraneous organic substances frequently interfere with the reaction between the microorganisms and the active agent of the decontaminant. Operator should wear gloves during this procedure.

2. Flood the top work surface tray, and, if a Class II cabinet, the drain pans and catch basins below the work surface, with a decontaminant and allow to stand 10–15 minutes.

3. Remove excess decontaminant from the tray by wiping with a sponge or cloth soaked in a decontaminant. For Class II cabinets, drain the tray into the cabinet base, lift out tray and removable exhaust grille work, and wipe off top and bottom (underside) surfaces with a sponge or cloth soaked in a decontamiant. Then replace in position and drain decontaminant from cabinet base into appropriate container and autoclave according to standard procedures. Gloves, cloth or sponge should be discarded in an autoclave pan and autoclaved.

B. Biohazard Spill Outside a Biological Safety Cabinet

1. Hold your breath, leave the room immediately, and close the door.

2. Warn others not to enter the contaminated area.

3. Remove and put into a container contaminated garments for autoclaving and thoroughly wash hands and face.

4. Wait 30 minutes to allow dissipation of aerosols created by the spill.

5. Put on a long-sleeve gown, mask, and rubber gloves before reentering the room. For a high risk agent, a jumpsuit with tight-fitting wrists and use of a respirator should be considered).

6. Pour a decontaminant solution (5% iodophor or 5% hypochlorite are recommended) around the spill and allow to flow into the spill. Paper towels soaked with the decontaminant may be used to cover the area. To minimize aerosolization, avoid pouring the decontaminant solution directly onto the spill.

7. Let stand 20 minutes to allow an adequate contact time.

8. Using an autoclavable dust pan and squeegee, transfer all contaminated materials (paper towels, glass, liquid, gloves, etc.) into a deep autoclave pan. Cover the pan with aluminum foil or other suitable cover and autoclave according to standard directions.

9. The dust pan and squeegee should be placed in an autoclavable bag and autoclaved according to standard directions. Contact of reusable items with non autoclavable plastic bags should be avoided—separation of the plastic after autoclaving can be very difficult.

C. Radioactive Biohazard Spill Outside a Biological Safety Cabinet

In the event that a biohazardous spill also involves a radiation hazard, the clean-up procedure may have to be modified, depending on an evaluation of the risk assessment of relative biological and radiological hazard.

Laboratories handling radioactive substances must have the services of a designated radiation protection officer available for consultation.

The following procedure indicates suggested variations from the biohazard spill procedure (above) that should be considered when a radioactive biohazard spill occurs outside a Biological Safety Cabinet.*

1. Holding your breath, leave the room immediately and close the door.

2. Warn others not to enter the contaminated area.

3. Remove and put in a container contaminated garments for autoclaving and thoroughly wash hands and face.

4. Wait thirty minutes to allow dissipation of aerosols created by the spill.

**Before clean-up procedures begin, a radiation protection officer should survey the spill for external radiation hazard to determine the relative degree of risk.*

5. Put on a long-sleeve gown, mask, and rubber gloves before reentering the room. (For a high risk agent, a jumpsuit with tight-fitting sleeves and a respirator should be considered).

6. Pour a decontaminant solution (5% iodophor or 5% hypochlorite are recommended) around the spill and allow to flow into the spill. Paper towels soaked with the decontaminant may be used to cover the area. To minimize aerosolization, avoid pouring the decontaminant solution directly onto the spill.

7. Let stand 20 minutes to allow adequate disinfectant contact time.

8. **In most cases, the spill will involve ^{14}C or ^{3}H, which present no external hazard. However, if more energetic beta or gamma emitters are involved, care must be taken to prevent hand and body radiation exposure. The radiation protection officer must make this determination before the clean-up operation is begun.*

If the radiation protection officer approves, the biohazard-handling procedure may begin: Using an autoclavable dust pan and squeegee, transfer all contaminated materials (paper towels, glass, liquid, gloves, etc.) into a deep autoclave pan. Cover the pan with aluminum foil or other suitable cover and autoclave according to standard directions.

**If the radiation protection officer determines that radioactive vapors may be released and thereby contaminate the autoclave, the material must not be autoclaved. In that case, sufficient decontaminant solution to immerse the contents should be added to the waste container. The cover should be sealed with waterproof tape, and the container stored and handled for disposal as radioactive waste. Radioactive and biohazard warning symbols should be affixed to the waste container. As a general rule, autoclaving should be avoided.*

9. If autoclaving has been approved, the dust pan and squeegee should be placed in an autoclavable bag and autoclaved according to standard directions. Contact of reusable items with plastic bags should be avoided—separation of the plastic after autoclaving can be very difficult.

**A final radioactive survey should be made of the spill area, dust pan, and squeegee with a Geiger counter, or a smear should be taken and counted in a liquid scintillation counter.*

IX. A SECONDARY RESERVOIR AND FILTRATION APPARATUS FOR VACUUM SYSTEMS

The aspiration of tissue culture media from monolayer cultures and of supernatants from centrifuged samples into collection vessels or reservoirs is a common procedure in many laboratories. To prevent the accidental contamination by aerosols or fluids of house vacuum systems or laboratory pumps, some investigators have installed side arm flasks containing cotton, sulfuric acid or decontaminant between the reservoir and the vacuum line. Cotton is not completely effective as a filtering agent, sulfuric acid will corrode pipes, and decontaminants may lose their inactivating ability upon standing. The introduction of a cartridge-type filter that is moisture resistant and has a rated capacity to remove particles 350 nm (0.35u) or larger in size provides an effective barrier to virus aerosols.

The secondary reservoir and filtration apparatus can be assembled from readily available units as shown in Figure 1. A length of plastic tubing ¼ inch I.D. $\times \frac{1}{16}$ inch wall is attached at one end of the reservoir and at the other end to the lower arm of a filtration and media storage flask. These flasks vary in capacity from 250 to 4000 ml, the choice of flask depending on available space and amount of fluid that could be accidentally aspirated. A second tube of the same dimensions is attached from the upper arm of the flask to the inlet port of the disposable filter assembly. The third tube is attached from the filter assembly to a vacuum source. The tubes are securely held to the filter by fittings supplied with the filter and the other tubing connections can be secured by worm drive hose clamps.

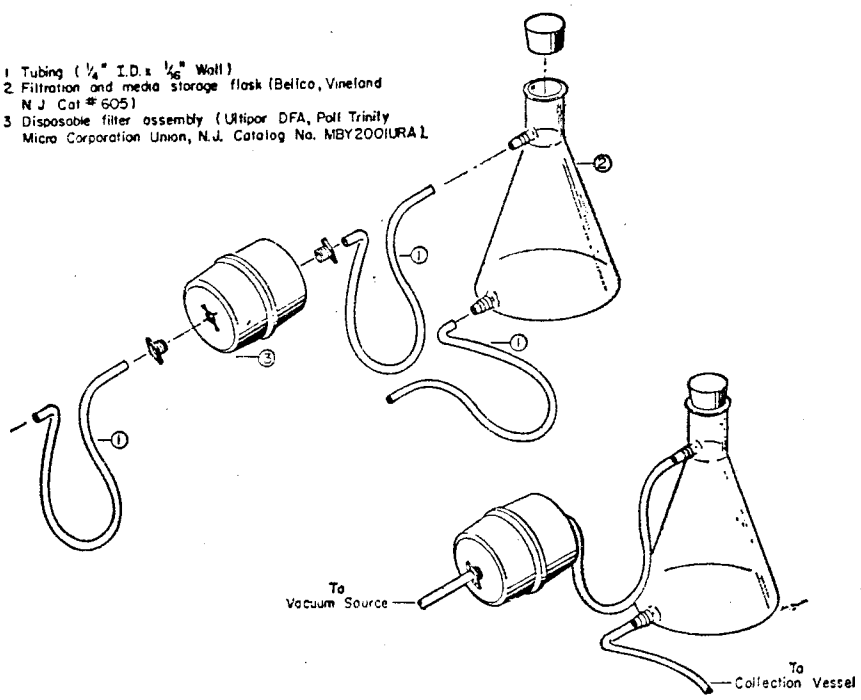
Ideally the flask should be placed higher than the reservoir of collection vessel. If fluid is accidentally drawn into the flask, the liquid can drain back into the reservoir by gravity if the connection at the vacuum line is broken. This prevents the loss of fluid which the investigator needs to retain.

Should the flask be used only for the recovery and storage of waste fluids, then the addition of a few grams of Dow Corning Antifoam A to the flask will reduce violent foaming of fluids aspirated into it. Such fluids can be decontaminated by introducing into the reservoir a final 5% concentration of an iodophor or other appropriate decontaminant, holding for 30 minutes and draining as above.

If the filter becomes contaminated or requires changing, the filter and flask can be safely removed by clamping the line between filter and vacuum source. The filter and flask should be autoclaved before the filter is discarded. A new filter can then be installed and the assembly replaced.

*Changes in procedures have been starred and underlined.

Figure 1
A SECONDARY RESERVOIR AND FILTRATION APPARATUS



X. PACKAGING AND SHIPPING

A. Introduction

Federal regulations and carrier tariffs have been promulgated to ensure the safe transport of hazardous biological materials. The NIH Guidelines specify that all DNA recombinant materials will be packaged and shipped in containers that meet the requirements of these regulations and carrier tariffs. In addition when any portion of the recombinant DNA material is derived from an etiologic agent listed in paragraph (c) of 42 CFR 72.25 (which is included at the end of this section, page D–85) the labeling requirements in these regulations and carrier tariffs shall apply.

B. Packaging of Recombinant DNA Materials

1. Volume less than 50 ml.

Material shall be placed in a securely closed, watertight container [primary container (test tube, vial, etc.)] which shall be enclosed in a second, durable watertight container (secondary container). Several primary containers may be enclosed in a single secondary container, if the total volume of all the primary containers so enclosed does not exceed 50 ml. The space at the top, bottom, and sides between the primary and secondary containers shall contain sufficient nonparticulate absorbent material to absorb the entire contents of the primary container(s) in case of breakage or leakage. Each set of primary and secondary containers shall then be enclosed in an outer shipping container constructed of corrugated fiberboard, cardboard, wood, or other material of equivalent strength.

If dry ice is used as a refrigerant, it must be placed outside the secondary container(s).

Descriptions of this packaging method are given in Table III.

2. Volumes of 50 ml. or Greater.

Material shall be placed in a securely closed, watertight container (primary container) which shall be enclosed in a second, durable watertight container (secondary container). Single primary containers shall not contain more than 500 ml. of material. However, two or more primary containers whose combined volumes do not exceed 500 ml. may be placed in a single secondary container. The space at the top, bottom, and sides between the primary and secondary containers shall contain sufficient non-particulate absorbent material to absorb the entire contents of the primary container(s) in case of breakage or leakage. Each set of primary and secondary containers shall then be enclosed in an outer shipping container constructed of corrugated fiberboard, cardboard, wood, or other material of equivalent strength. A shock absorbent material, in volume at least equal to that of the absorbent material between the primary and secondary containers, shall be placed at the top, bottom, and sides between the secondary container and the outer shipping container. Not more than eight secondary shipping containers may be enclosed in a single outer shipping container. (The maximum amount of materials which may be enclosed within a single outer shipping container should not exceed 4.000 ml.).

If dry ice is used as a refrigerant, it must be placed outside the secondary container(s). If dry ice is used between the secondary container and the outer shipping container, the shock absorbent material shall be placed so that the secondary container does not become loose inside the outer shipping container as the dry ice sublimates.

Descriptions of packages which comply with the regulations of the Department of Transportation (DOT) are given in Table IV.

C. Labeling of Packages Containing Recombinant DNA Materials

1. Materials which do not contain any portion of an etiologic agent listed in paragraph (c) of 42 CFR 72.25.

Material data forms, letters, and other information identifying or describing the material should be placed around the outside of the secondary container. Place only the address label on the outer shipping container. DO NOT USE THE LABEL FOR ETIOLOGIC AGENTS/BIOMEDICAL MATERIAL.

2. Materials which contain any portion of an etiologic agent listed in paragraph (c) of 42 CFR 72.25.

Material data forms, letters, and other information identifying or describing the material should be placed around the *outside* of the secondary container. In addition to the address label, the label for Etiologic Agents/Biomedical Material must be affixed to the outer shipping container. This label is described in paragraph (c)(4) of 42 CFR 72.25.

3. Materials which contain any portion of a plant pest (plant pathogens) which are so defined by the Department of Agriculture (USDA).

Material data forms, letters, and other information identifying or describing the material should be placed around the *outside* of the secondary container. In addition to the address label, the shipping labels furnished by the USDA as part of the General, Courtesy, or Special Permits required for research with and shipment of such agents shall be affixed to the outer shipping container.

D. Additional Shipping Requirements and Limitations for Recombinant DNA Materials

1. Domestic Transportation.

Civil Aeronautics Board Rule No. 82 (Air Transport Association Restricted Articles Tariff 6–D) requires that a Shipper's Certificate, depicted below, be completed and affixed to all shipments which bear the ETIOLOGIC AGENT/BIOMEDICAL MATERIALS label required under the provisions of the Interstate Quarantine regulations [42 CFR Section 72.25(c)]. The Certificate must be completed in duplicate and affixed to the outer shipping container.

This is to certify that the contents of this consignment are properly classified, described by proper shipping name and are packed, marked and labelled and are in proper condition for carriage by air according to all applicable carrier and government regulations. (For international shipments add "and to the IATA Restricted Articles Regulations".) This consignment is within the limitations prescribed for: PASSENGER AIRCRAFT/CARGO ONLY (cross out nonapplicable).

Number of Packages	Specify Each Article Separately (Proper Shipping Name)	Classification	Net Quantity per Package
	ETIOLOGIC AGENT, n.o.s.	ETIO. AG.	

Shipper:

Date _____

_____
(Signature of Shipper)

Shipments of recombinant DNA Materials exceeding 50 ml in volume and containing any portion of an etiologic agent listed in paragraph (c) of 42 CFR 72.25 are restricted, by DOT regulations, to transport by cargo only aircraft. When the volume of a single primary container exceeds the 50 ml limitation, this restriction must be indicated on the Shipper's Certificate by crossing out "Passenger Aircraft".

When dry ice is used as a refrigerant an "ORA-Group A–DRY ICE LABEL" should be affixed to the outer shipping container. The amount of dry ice used and the date packed should be designated on the label.

2. International Transportation.

In addition to the packaging and labeling requirements of the regulations previously cited, international shipments of recombinant DNA materials in which any portion of the material is derived from an etiologic agent listed in paragraph (c) of 42 CFR 72.25 must have one or more of the following documents—depending on the country of destination:

(1) Parcel Post Customs Declaration (PS 2966) tag.

(2) Parcel Post Customs Declaration (PS 2966–A) label.

(3) International Parcel Post—Instructions Given by Sender (POD 2922) label.

(4) Dispatch note (POD 2972) tag.

(5) "Violet Label".

(6) Shipper's Certificate specified in the current International Air Transport Association Tariff.

Individual country requirements are listed in "International Postage Rates and Fees" (USPO Publication 51).

TABLE III.—*Description of packages for material in volume less than 50 ml.*

Volume (milliliter)	Primary container	Packing	Secondary container	Packing	Outer shipping container [1]
16 maximum	Sealed vial(s) or small glass test tube, screw cap or stopper, taped.[1]	Nonparticulate absorbent material at top, bottom, and sides that will completely absorb contents of the primary container(s).	Metal can 1-in diameter by 7-in outside dimensions metal screw cap.	None required	Fiberbody; metal screw cap top and bottom; 1⅛-in diameter by 7-to 7½-in outside dimensions.
50 or less	One 20 by 150 mm test tube, taped stopper or multiple small vials.[2]	do	Metal can 2½-in diameter by 6½-in high outside dimensions screw cap.	do	Fiberbody; metal screw cap top and bottom; 3¾-in diameter by 7-to 7½ or outside dimensions.
Do	Plastic screw cap bottle or Pyrex glass with skirt rubber stopper.[2]	do	do	do	Do.
Do	Multiple watertight vials or tubes, taped stoppers.[2]	do	1 or more friction-seal tin cans 306 by 408 or larger.[3]	None required, but with the 306 by 400 cans or larger cans use sufficient nonparticulate shock-absorbent material to prevent rattling.	Fiberboard box

[1] If materials are to be refrigerated, it is recommended that an overpack be used to contain the refrigerant and the secured (original) outer shipping container. A leakproof outer container must be used for water ice. If dry ice is used the outer container must permit release of carbon dioxide. Interior supports must be provided to hold the container(s) in the original position(s) after wet or dry ice has dissipated.

[2] The flexibility of the plastic bottle requires that a stopper or screw cap be secured in place by adhesive tape. The usual equivalent-size glass flat-sided prescription bottle is too fragile for use. For air transport, all stoppers, corks, and caps on primary containers must be secured in place with wire, tape, or other means, and all screw-capped containers of unfrozen liquid must be placed in 5- or 6-mil polyvinyl tubing, heat sealed at both ends to prevent atmospheric decompression that may result in leakage past the screw cap.

[3] 610 by 708 and 804 by 908 are trade designations for outside dimensions of 6 10/16-in diameter by 7 8/16-in height, and 8 4/16-in by 9 9/16-in.

TABLE IV.—*Description of packages for material in volumes of 50 ml or greater*

Volume (milliliter)	Primary container	Packing	Secondary container	Packing		Outer shipping container	
				With refrigerant	Without refrigerant	With refrigerant	Without refrigerant
51 to 100	Plastic or Pyrex glass screw cap bottle; rubber or skirt rubber stopper, taped.[1]	Nonparticulate absorbent material at top, bottom, and sides that will completely absorb contents of the primary container(s).	Consists of metal container and outer container specified in table III.	Styrofoam box shock-absorbent insulation.	Shock absorbent material, in volume at least equal to that between the primary and secondary container(s), at the top, bottom, and sides between the secondary container and the outer shipping container. The shock absorbent material shall be so placed that the secondary container(s) does not become loose inside the outer shipping container as the water ice or dry ice is dissipated.	Fiberboard box closely fitting the styrofoam box, taped shut.	Corrugated fiberboard or cardboard box, taped shut.
100 maximum	1 100-ml plastic screw cap narrow neck bottle or Pyrex glass, taped.[1]	do	No. 3 crimp seal tin can 404 by 700 or a 1-gal friction-seal tin can, 610 by 708, top soldered or clipped at 4 points.[3]	do	do	do	V3C cardboard box PS3 type, 9 3/16 in by 9 3/16 in by 11 1/4 in high outside dimensions, taped shut with 3 in type PS3 tape.
200 maximum	2 100-ml plastic screw cap bottles or Pyrex glass, taped.[1]	do	do[2]	do	do	do	Do.
250 maximum	1 250-ml plastic narrow mouth screw cap bottle or Pyrex glass skirted rubber stopper, taped.[1]	do	do[2]	do	do	do	Do.
500 maximum	2 250-ml plastic screw cap bottles or Pyrex glass bottles, taped.[1]	do	2-gal friction-seal tin can, 804 by 908, top soldered or clipped at 4 points.[2]	do	do	do	V3C cardboard box 12 1/4 in by 12 1/4 in by 10 3/16 in high outside dimensions, taped shut with 3-in wide PS3 tape.
Do	500-ml Pyrex glass bottle, rubber-skirt stopper, taped, or 500-ml plastic bottle, narrow or wide mouth, screw cap, taped.[1]	do	No. 12 crimp seal tin can 603 by 810 2-gal friction-seal tin can, 804 by 908, top soldered or clipped at 4 points.[3]	do	do	do	V3C cardboard box 12 1/4 in by 12 1/4 in by 10 3/16 in high outside dimensions, taped shut with 3 in wide PS3 tape. For the No. 12 can a cardboard box is OK taped shut.

[1] The flexibility of the plastic bottle requires that a stopper or screw cap be secured in place by adhesive tape. The usual equivalent-size glass flat-sided prescription bottle is too fragile for use. For air transport, all stoppers, corks, and caps on primary containers must be secured in place with wire, tape, or other means, and all screw-capped containers of unfrozen liquid must be placed in 5 or 6 mil polyvinyl tubing heat-sealed at both ends to prevent atmospheric decompression that may result in leakage past the screw cap.

[2] 610 by 708 and 804 by 908 are trade designations for outside dimensions of 6 9/16-in diameter by 7 3/16 in height, and 8 5/16 in by 9 5/16 in.

DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE; PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE; CENTER FOR DISEASE CONTROL; ATLANTA, GEORGIA 30333; TELEPHONE: (404) 633-3311, EXT. 3883

TITLE 42—PUBLIC HEALTH; CHAPTER I—PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE, DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE; SUBCHAPTER F—QUARANTINE, INSPECTION, LICENSING; PART 72—INTERSTATE QUARANTINE; SUBPART C—SHIPMENT OF CERTAIN THINGS

Section 72.25 of Part 72, Title 42, Code of Federal Regulations, is amended to read as follows:

§ 72.25 *Etiologic agents.*[1]

(a) *Definitions.* As used in this section:

(1) An "etiologic agent" means a viable microorganism or its toxin which causes, or may cause, human disease.

(2) "diagnostic specimen" means any human or animal material including, but not limited to, excreta, secreta, blood and its components, tissue, and tissue fluids being shipped for purposes of diagnosis.

(3) A "biological product" means a biological product prepared and manufactured in accordance with the provisions of 9 CFR Part 10, Licensed Veterinary Biological Products, 42 CFR Part 73, Licensed Human Biological Products, 21 CFR 130.3, *New drugs for investigational use in humans*, 9 CFR Part 103, Biological Products for Experimental Treatment of Animals, or 21 CFR 130.3(a), *New drugs for investigational use in animals*, and which, in accordance with such provisions may be shipped in interstate traffic.

(b) *Transportation; etiologic agent minimum packaging requirements.* No person may knowingly transport or cause to be transported in interstate traffic, directly or indirectly, any material, including but not limited to, diagnostic specimens and biological products, containing, or reasonably believed by such person to contain an etiologic agent unless such material is packaged to withstand leakage of contents, shocks, pressure changes, and other conditions incident to ordinary handling in transportation.

(c) *Transportation; etiologic agents subject to additional requirements.* No person may knowingly transport or cause to be transported in interstate traffic, directly or indirectly, any material, other than diagnostic specimens and biological products, containing, or reasonably believed by such person to contain, one or more of the following etiologic agents unless such material is packaged in accordance with the requirements specified in paragraph (b) of this section, and unless, in addition, such material is packaged and shipped in accordance with the requirements specified in subparagraphs (1)–(6) of this paragraph:

[1] The requirements of this section are in addition to and not in lieu of any other packaging or other requirements for the transportation of etiologic agents in interstate traffic prescribed by the Department of Transportation and other agencies of the Federal Government.

BACTERIAL AGENTS

Actinobacillus—all species.
Arizona hinshawii—all serotypes.
Bacillus anthracis.
Bartonella—all species.
Bordetella—all species.
Borrelia recurrentis, B. vincenti
Brucella—all species.
Clostridium botulinum, Cl. chauvoei, Cl. haemolyticum, Cl. histolyticum, Cl. novyi, Cl. septicum, Cl. tetani.
Corynebacterium diphtheriae C, equi, C. haemolyticum, C. pseudotuberculosis, C. pyogenes, C. renale.
Diplococcus (Streptococcus) pneumoniae.
Erysipelothrix insidiosa.
Escherichia coli, all enteropathogenic serotypes.
Francisella (Pasteurella) tularensis.
Haemophilus ducreyi, H. influenzae.
Herellea vaginicola.
Klebsiella—all species and all serotypes
Leptospira interrogans—all serotypes.
Listeria—all species.
Mima polymorpha.
Moraxella—all species.
Mycobacterium—all species.
Mycoplasma—all species.
Neisseria gonorrhoeae, N. meningitidis
Pasteurella—all species.
Pseudomonas pseudomallei.
Salmonella—all species and all serotypes.
Shigella—all species and all serotypes.
Sphaerophorus necrophorus.
Staphylococcus aureus.
Streptobacillus moniliformis.
Streptococcus pyogenes.
Treponema carateum, T. pallidum, and T. pertenue.
Vibrio fetus, V. comma, including biotype El Tor, and *V. parahemolyticus.*
Yersenia (Pasteurella) pestis.

FUNGAL AGENTS

Actinomycetes (including *Nocardia species, Actinomyces* species and *Arachnia propionica*).
Blastomyces dermatitidis.
Coccidioides immitis.
Cryptococcus neoformans.
Histoplasma capsulatum.
Paracoccidioides brasiliensis.

VIRAL, RICKETTSIAL, AND CHLAMYDIAL AGENTS

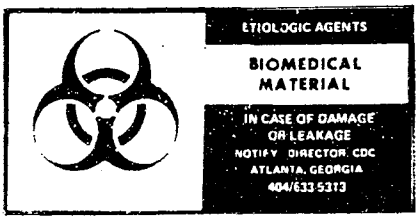
Adenoviruses—human—all types.
Arboviruses.
Coxiella burnetii.
Coxsackie A and B viruses—all types.
Cytomegaloviruses.
Dengue virus.
Echoviruses—all types.
Encephalomyocarditis virus.
Hemorrhagic fever agents, including *Crimean hemorrhagic fever (Congo), Junin*, and *Machupo viruses*, and others as yet undefined.
Hepatitis-associated antigen.
Herpesvirus—all members.
Infectious bronchitis-like virus.
Influenza viruses—all types.
Lassa virus.
Lymphocytic choriomeningitis virus.
Marburg virus.
Measles virus.
Mumps virus.
Parainfluenza viruses—all types.
Poliovirus—all types.
Poxviruses—all members.
Psittacosis-Ornithosis-Trachoma-Lymphogranuloma group of agents.
Rabies virus—all strains.
Reoviruses—all types.
Respiratory syncytial virus.
Rhinoviruses—all types.
Rickettsia—all species.
Rubella virus.
Simian viruses—all types.
Tick-borne encephalitis virus complex, including *Russian spring-summer encephalitis, Kyasanur forest disease, Omsk hemorrhagic fever*, and *Central European encephalitis viruses.*
Vaccinia virus.
Varicella virus.
Variola major and *Variola minor viruses.*
Vesicular stomatis virus.
Yellow fever virus.

(1) *Volume less than 50 ml.* Material shall be placed in a securely closed, watertight container (primary container (test tube, vial, etc.)) which shall be enclosed in a second, durable watertight container (secondary container). Several primary containers may be enclosed in a single secondary container, if the total volume of all the primary containers so enclosed does not exceed 50 ml. The space at the top, bottom, and sides between the primary and secondary containers shall contain sufficient nonparticulate absorbent material to absorb the entire contents of the primary container(s) in case of breakage or leakage. Each set of primary and secondary containers shall then be enclosed in an outer shipping container constructed or corrugated fiberboard, cardboard, wood, or other material of equivalent strength.

(2) *Volume 50 ml. or greater.* Packaging of material in volumes of 50 ml. or more shall include, in addition, a shock absorbent material, in volume at least equal to that of the absorbent material between the primary and secondary containers at the top, bottom, and sides between the secondary container and the outer shipping container. Single primary containers shall not contain more than 500 ml. of material. However, two or more primary containers whose combined volumes do not exceed 500 ml. may be placed in a single, secondary container. Not more than eight secondary shipping containers may be enclosed in a single outer shipping container. (The maximum amount of etiologic agent which may be enclosed within a single outer shipping container shall not exceed 4,000 ml.)

(3) *Dry ice.* If dry ice is used as a refrigerant, it must be placed outside the secondary container(s). If dry ice is used between the secondary container and the outer shipping container, the shock absorbent material shall be so placed that the secondary container does not become loose inside the outer shipping container as the dry ice sublimates.

(4) *Labels.* The label for Etiologic Agents/Biomedical Material, except for size and color, must be shown:



(i) The color of material on which the label is printed must be white and the symbol and printing in red.

(ii) The label must be a rectangle measuring 51 mm. (2 inches) high by 102.5 mm. (4 inches) long.

(iii) The red symbol measuring 38 mm. (1½ inches) in diameter must be centered in a white square measuring 51 mm. (2 inches) on each side.

(iv) Type size of the letters of label shall be as follows:

ETIOLOGIC AGENT	10 pt. rev.
BIOMEDICAL MATERIAL	14 pt.
IN CASE OF DAMAGE OR LEAKAGE	10 pt. rev.
NOTIFY DIRECTOR CDC ATLANTA, GA	8 pt. rev.
404 633 5313	10 pt. rev.

(5) *Damaged packages.* Carriers shall promptly, upon discovery of damage to the package that indicates damage to the primary container, isolate the package and notify the Director, Center for Disease Control, 1600 Clifton Road NE., Atlanta, GA 30333 (telephone (404) 633-5313), and the sender.

(6) *Registered mail or equivalent system.* Transportation of the following etiologic agents shall be by registered mail or an equivalent system which requires or provides for sending notification to the shipper immediately upon delivery:

Actinobacillus mallei.
Coccidioides immitis.
Francisella (Pasteurella) tularensis.
Hemorrhagic fever agents, including, but not limited to, *Crimean hemorrhagic fever (Congo), Junin, Machupo viruses.*
Herpesvirus simiae (B virus).
Histoplasma capsulatum.
Lassia virus.
Marburg virus.
Pseudomonas pseudomallei.
Tick-borne encephalitis virus complex. Including, but not limited to, *Russian spring-summer encephalitis, Kyasanur forest disease, Omsk hemorrhagic fever,* and *Central European encephalitis viruses, Variola minor* and *Variola major.*
Yersenia (Pasteurella) pestis.

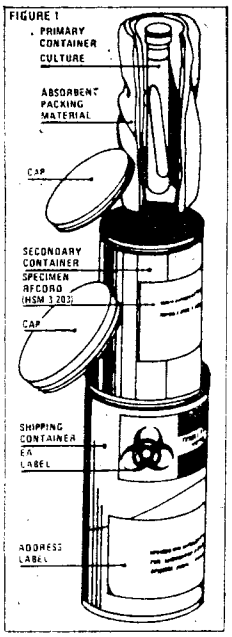
(d) *Notice of delivery; failure to receive.* When notice of delivery of agents containing, or suspected of containing, etiologic agents listed in paragraph (c) (6) of this section is not received by the sender within 5 days following anticipated delivery of the package, the shipper shall notify the Director, Center for Disease Control, 1600 Clifton Road NE., Atlanta, GA 30333 (telephone (404) 633-5313).

(e) *Requirements; variations.* The Administrator may approve variations from the requirements of this section if, upon review and evaluation, he finds that such variations provide protection at least equivalent to that provided by compliance with the requirements specified in this section and makes such findings a matter of official record.

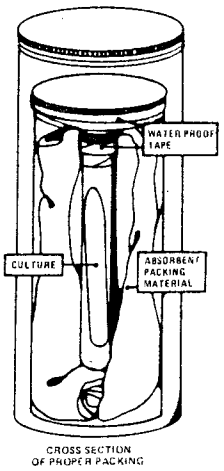
(Sec. 361, 58 Stat. 703; 42 U.S.C. 264)

[FR Doc.72-9887 Filed 6-29-72;8:45 am]

Effective July 30, 1972



PACKAGING AND LABELING OF ETIOLOGIC AGENTS



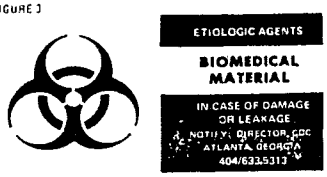
The Interstate Quarantine Regulations (42 CFR, Part 72.25, Etiologic Agents) was revised July 31, 1972 to provide for packaging and labeling requirements for etiologic agents and certain other materials shipped in interstate traffic.

Figures 1 and 2 diagram the packaging and labeling of etiologic agents in volumes of less than 50 ml. in accordance with the provisions of subparagraph (C) (1) of the cited regulation. Figure 3 illustrates the color and size of the label, described in subparagraph (C) (4) of the regulations, which shall be affixed to all shipments of etiologic agents.

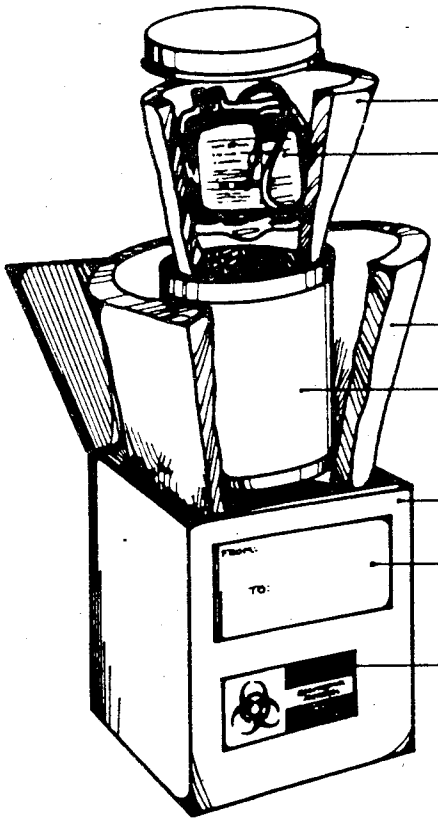
For further information on any provision of this regulation contact:

Center for Disease Control
Attn: Biohazards Control Office
1600 Clifton Road
Atlanta, Georgia 30333
Telephone: 404 633 3311

FIGURE 3



PACKAGING AND LABELING OF ETIOLOGIC AGENTS



*NOTE: Single primary containers may not exceed 500 ml. of material. Two or more primary containers whose combined volumes do not exceed 500 ml. may be enclosed in a single, secondary container. The maximum volume of etiologic agent which may be enclosed in a single outer shipping container shall not exceed 4000 ml.

The Interstate Quarantine Regulations (42 CFR, Part 72.25, Etiologic Agents) was revised July 31, 1972, to provide for packaging and labeling requirements for etiologic agents and certain other materials shipped in interstate traffic. The illustration shows acceptable packaging and labeling of etiologic agents in accordance with subparagraphs (c) (2) and (4) of the cited regulation.

For further information on any provision of this regulation contact:

Center for Disease Control
Attn: Biohazards Control Office
1600 Clifton Road
Atlanta, Georgia 30333

Telephone: 404-633-3311

XI. TRAINING AIDS, MATERIALS AND COURSES

A. Slide-Tape Cassettes

1. Assessment of Risk in the Cancer Virus Laboratory ($10).

2. Effective Use of The Laminar Flow Biological Safety Cabinet ($10).

3. Formaldehyde Decontamination of Laminar Flow Biological Safety Cabinets ($10).

4. Certification of Class II (Laminar Flow) Biological Safety Cabinets ($13).

5. Hazard Control in the Animal Laboratory ($10).

6. Basic Principles of Contamination Control (In preparation).

7. Selection of a Biological Safety Cabinet (In preparation). These slide tape cassettes are available for purchase from the National Audiovisual Center. The price for each is given above after the title. Send your order prepaid with a check or money order made payable to National Archives Trust Fund and mail to: Sales Branch, National Audiovisual Center (GSA), Washington, D.C. 20409.

8. Research Laboratory Safety. This slide tape cassette, stock number 176.79, is available for $75 from the National Safety Council, 425 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Illinois 60611.

B. Films

1. Air Sampling for Microbiological Particulates (M-926).

2. Handling the Laboratory Guinea Pig (T2618-X).

3. Handling the Laboratory Mouse (T2617-X).

4. Infectious Hazards of Bacteriological Techniques (M-382).

5. Laboratory Design for Microbiological Safety (M-1091).

6. Plastic Isolators: New Tools for Medical Research (M-599).

7. Safe Handling of Laboratory Animals (M-455).

8. Surface Sampling for Microorganisms (Rodac Method) (M-924).

9. Surface Sampling for Microorganisms (Swab Method) (M-925).

These films are available on loan without charge from: Media Resources Branch, National Medical Audiovisual Center (Annex), Station K, Atlanta, Georgia 30324.

The same films (except 2 and 3) can be rented or bought from: National Audiovisual Center (GSA) (Rental Branch) = (Sales Branch), Washington, D.C. 20409.

C. Courses

1. Biohazard and Injury Control in the Biomedical Laboratory. Presented by the University of Minnesota, School of Public Health and the National Cancer Institute, Office of Research Safety. Direct inquiries to Dr. Donald Vesley, University of Minnesota, School of Public Health, 1325 Mayo Memorial Building, Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455. June 22–24, 1976, Los Angeles, CA; October 26–28, 1976, Boston, MA; December 7–9, 1976, Bethesda, MD.

2. Biohazard Containment and Control for Recombinant DNA Molecules. Presented by the University of Minnesota, School of Public Health and the National Cancer Institute, Office of Research Safety. Direct inquiries as above. September 8–9, 1976, Stanford, CA: September 21–11, 1976; Cold Spring Harbor, NY.

3. Safety in Laboratory. Presented by National Institute of Occupational Safety and Health, Division of Training and Manpower Development, by special arrangement. Robert A. Taft Laboratories, 4676 Columbia Parkway, Cincinnati, Ohio 45226.

4. Laboratory Safety Management. Presented by the Laboratory and Training Division, Bureau of Laboratories, Center for Disease Control, Atlanta, Georgia. September 14–16, 1976, September 13–15, 1977.

XII. OUTLINE OF A SAFETY AND OPERATION MANUEL FOR A P4 FACILITY

A. Purpose
B. Policy
C. Responsibility and Authority
1. Management.
2. Supervisor.
3. Each Employee.
4. Facility Safety Officer.
5. Biohazard Safety Committee.
D. Facility Assignment Procedures
E. Reporting of Major and Minor Accidents and Injuries, Exposure to Toxic or Infectious Materials, Unsafe Conditions and Property Damages, and Rendering First-Aid
F. General Laboratory Safety
1. Fire.
2. Equipment.
3. Physical.
4. Chemical.
5. Radiological.
G. Safety Procedures Associated with Biohazard Activities of the Laboratory
1. Personnel Practices.
2. Operational Practices.
H. Medical Surveillance
I. Facility Operations
1. Personnel Access Procedures.
2. Access Procedures for Equipment Materials and Supplies.
3. Maintenance and Support.
4. Zone Classification.
5. Facility Monitoring Procedures.
6. Housekeeping.
J. Others
1. Packaging and Shipment of Biohazardous Materials.
2. Emergency Procedures.
3. Insect and Rodent Control.
4. Orientation and Training.

Appendix D was prepared by a Working Group Consisting of:

W. Emmett Barkley (Chairman), National Cancer Institute, NIH.
Manuel S. Barbeito, National Cancer Institute, NIH.
Everett Hanel, Jr., Frederick Cancer Research Center.
George S. Michaelsen, School of Public Health, University of Minnesota.
Vinson R. Oviatt, Division of Research Services, NIH.
Warren V. Powell, Division of Research Services, NIH.
John Richardson, Center for Disease Control.
James F. Sullivan, National Animal Disease Laboratories.
Arnold G. Wedum, Frederick Cancer Research Center.

REFERENCES

(1) American National Standards Institute. 1968. Z 35.1.

(2) Wedum, A. G. 1964. Laboratory safety in research with infectious aerosols. Public Health Rep. 79:619–633.

(3) Phillips, G. B. 1965. Microbiological hazards in the laboratory. J. Chem. Education. Part One—Control, 42:A43–A48. Part Two—Prevention, 42:A117–A130.

(4) Hellman, A. 1969. Biohazard control and containment in oncogenic virus research. USPHS, NIH, NCI.

(5) Darlow, H. M. 1969. Safety in the microbiological laboratory. *In* J. R. Norris and D. W. Ribbons (eds.). Methods in Microbiology. Academic Press, New York, pp. 169–204.

(6) Chatigny, M. A. and Clinger, D. I. 1969. Contamination control in microbiology. *In* R. L. Dimmick and A. B. Akers (eds.). An Introduction to Experimental Aerobiology. John Wiley & Sons, New York, pp. 194–263.

(7) Chatigny, M. 1961. Protection against infection in the microbiological laboratory, devices and procedures. *In* W. W. Umbreit (ed.). Advances in Applied Microbiology No. 3. Academic Press, New York, pp. 131–192.

(8) Collins, C. H., Hartley, E. G., and Pilsworth, R. 1974. The prevention of laboratory-acquired infection. Public Health Laboratory Service Monograph Series No. 6. Her Majesty's Stationery Office, London.

(9) Anon. 1968. Good Laboratory Practices Manual. National Cancer Institute, Bethesda, MD.

(10) U.S. Public Health Service. 1974. NIH Biohazards Safety Guide. GPO Stock #1740-00383. Supt. Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. ($3.85)

(11) Baldwin, C. L., Lemp, J. F., and Barbeito, M. S. 1975. Biohazards assessment in large-scale zonal centrifugation. Appl. Microbiol. 29:484–490.

(12) Morris, C. A. and Everall, P. H. 1972. Safe disposal of air discharged from centrifuges. J. Clin. Path. 25:742.

(13) Hall, C. V. 1975. A biological safety centrifuge. Health Lab. Sci. 12:104–106.

(14) Reitman, M. and Wedum, A. G. 1966. Microbiological safety. Public Health Rep. 71:659–665.

(15) Hanel, E. and Kruse, R. H. 1967. Laboratory-acquired mycoses. Misc. Publ. 28. AD-665376. Frederick Cancer Research Center, P.O. Box B, Frederick, MD.

(16) Smadel, J. E. 1951. The hazard of acquiring virus and rickettsial diseases in the laboratory. Amer. J. Public Health 41:788–795.

(17) Heckly, R. J. Quoted in A. H. Harris and M. B. Coleman (eds.). 1963. Laboratory infections and accidents. *In* Diagnostic Procedures and Reagents. Amer. Public Health Assoc., Inc., New York.

(18) Grieff, D. 1969. Safe procedure for opening evacuated glass ampoules containing dried pathogens. Appl. Microbiol. 18:130.

(19) Harney, R. W. S., Price, T. H., and Joynson, D. H. M. 1976. Observations on environmental contamination in a microbiological laboratory. J. Hyg. Camb. 76:91–96.

(20) Rutter, D. A. and Evans, C. G. T. 1972. Aerosol hazards from some clinical laboratory apparatus. Brit. Med. J. 1:594–597.

(21) Godber, G. 1975. Report of the working party on the laboratory use of dangerous pathogens. Cmnd 6054, ISBN 0 10 160540, 40 pp. Her Majesty's Stationery Office, London.

(22) Idoine, L. S. (ed.) 1973. Centrifuge Biohazard Proceeding of a Cancer Research Safety Symposium. Frederick Cancer Research Center, Frederick, MD.

(23) Hers, J. F. Ph. and Winkler, K. C. 1973. Airborne transmission and airborne infection. John Wiley & Sons, New York.
A. Page 415.
B. Page 425.
C. Page 429.
D. Page 434.
E. Pages 436–437.
F. Page 461.
G. Page 494.

(24) Lidwell, O. M. 1967. Take-off of bacteria and viruses, pp. 116–137. *In* P. H. Gregory and J. L. Monteith (eds.). 17th Symposium of the Society for General Microbiology, Cambridge Univ. Press, London.
A. Page 117.
B. Page 123.
C. Pages 127–128.
D. Page 130.

(25) Lennette, E. H., et al. 1974. Laboratory Safety regulations, viral and rickettsial disease laboratory. California State Department of Health, Berkeley, CA.

(26) U.S. Public Health Service. 1975. Lab safety at the Center for Disease Control. DHEW Publication No. CDC 76-8118. USPHS, CDC, Atlanta, GA.

(27) U.S. Army. 1969. Safety regulations, microbiological, chemical and industrial safety. FDR 385-1. Fort Detrick, Frederick, MD.

(28) Lidwell, O. M., Brock, B., Shooter, R. A., Cooke, E. M., and Thomas, G. E. 1975.

IV. Airborne dispersal of *Staphylococcus aureus* and its nasal acquisition by patients.

(29) Guyton, H. G. and Decker, H. M. 1963. Respiratory protection provided by five new contagion masks. Appl. Microbiol. 11:66–68.

(30) Braymen, D. T., Songer, J. R., and Sullivan, J. F. 1974. Effectiveness of footwear decontamination methods for preventing the spread of infectious agents. Lab. Anim. Sci. 24:888–894.

(31) Barbeito, M. S., Mathews, C. T., and Taylor, L. A. 1967. Microbiological laboratory hazard of bearded men. Appl. Microbiol. 15: 899–906.

(32) U.S. Public Health Service. 1974. Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals. DHEW Publication No. (NIH) 74–23. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. Price: 70¢. Stock No. 1740–0343.

(33) Code of Federal Regulations, Title 9—Animals and Animal Products. For sale by Supt. of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. (In the capital city of most states, a copy limited to 9 CFR Chapter 1, Subchapter A, Parts 1, 2, 3 can be obtained from the Federal Veterinarian in Charge, Animal and Plant Health Inspection Service.)

(34) Seamer, J. (ed.). 1972. Safety in the animal house. Laboratory Animal Handbook 5. Laboratory Animals, Ltd., London.

(35) Gay, W. I. (ed.). 1965. Methods of animal experimentation, Vol. 1. Academic Press, New York.

(36) Perkins, F. T. and O'Donoghue, P. N. 1969. Hazards of handling simians. Laboratory Animal Handbook 4. Laboratory Animals, Ltd., London.

(37) Melby, E. C. and Altman, N. H. (eds.). 1974–1796. Vol. 1, II, III. Handbook of Laboratory Animal Science. CRC Press, Inc., Cleveland, OH.

(38) Spaulding, E. H. 1972. Chemical disinfection and antisepsis in the hospital. J. Hospital Res. 9:5–31.

(39) Lawrence, C. A. and Block, S. S. (eds.). 1976. Disinfection, sterilization, and preservation. Lea & Febiger, Philadelphia, PA.

(40) Stecher, P. G. (ed.). 1968. The Merck Index. Merck & Co., Inc., Rahway, NJ.

(41) Taylor, L. A., Barbeito, M. S., and Gremillion, G. G. 1969. Paraformaldehyde for surface sterilization and detoxification. Appl. Microbiol. 17:614–618.

(42) Jemski, J. V. and Phillips, G. B. 1965. Aerosol challenge of animals. *In* W. I. Gay (ed.). Methods of animal experimentation, pp. 273–341. Academic Press, New York.

[FR Doc.76-19151 Filed 7-6-76;8:45 am]